

SOCIAL EDUCATION

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Erling M. Hunt, Editor

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Editor's Page

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION AND BETTER CITIZENSHIP

DURING recent months two university presidents and at least one high-ranking army officer have charged that modern education, responding to Progressive Education influence, produces bad citizens or bad soldiers. Too much freedom and self-expression, too little attention to "fundamentals" and discipline, and too much vocational or specialized education are specifically blamed. The charges are of interest to all educators and to teachers in all fields; they certainly raise issues central to our school program of civic education.

President Nicholas Murray Butler, in opening the new year at Columbia University on September 27, directed his criticism especially toward vocational education and lax training in homes and schools. But he also declared:

No more reactionary influence has come into education, than that which is oddly described as progressive education. This plan of action or rather non-action would, in its extreme form, first of all deprive the child of his intellectual, social and spiritual inheritance and put him back in the Garden of Eden to begin all over again the life of civilized man. He must be asked to do nothing which he does not like to do. He must be taught nothing which he does not desire to learn. He must not be subject to discipline in good manners or good morals. . . .

The *New York Times* of September 28 quoted him as saying that juvenile delinquency is largely "bad manners and no morals due to the family's failure to cooperate with schools and colleges."

President Butler's remedy, so far as colleges at least are concerned, is reversion to liberal education and against premature vocational education; "our constant aim must be men and not machines." For the curriculum of the schools Dr. Butler made no specific recommendation.

Similarly President Robert G. Sproul of the University of California, speaking at Charter Day exercises on March 22, urged return to "fundamentals" and "the disciplined education

of our students." As reported in the *New York Times* he predicted

"a post-war end of 'so-called progressive education,' whose 'helpless victims,' the students, were described as sufferers from all manner of educational dyspepsia and malnutrition." [Thus, continues the report] "the long-time interests of the race" would receive some protection against "the devastation of rampant adolescents and sub-adolescents." "Catastrophe" lay ahead, he warned, unless American education returned to "fundamentals," to "the disciplined education of our students."

President Sproul was critical of the elective system in colleges, of vocational education, and college neglect of American democracy, but asserted incidentally that "primary and secondary education [has] transferred control of the school in large part from the teachers to pupils."

A YEAR earlier parallel charges were related to experience of the Armed Forces with graduates of schools and colleges in the present war. Major General Norman T. Kirk, surgeon general of the Army, was reported by the Associated Press to have said that "Men who as children were allowed much freedom and self-expression are no good as soldiers and are the first to crack under strain. . . . [He] blamed on modern schools the lack of improvement in the bringing up of children."

In a letter to the *New York Herald Tribune*, a New England professor of classics charged that the depreciation of education through lowered standards together with resulting "lack of discipline in exactness" created widespread difficulties in obtaining good officer material for the war. He quoted a Navy report which asserts that "The same lack of fundamental education continues to present a major obstacle in the selection and training of midshipmen for commissioning as ensigns." He too demanded discipline in school and college, in all subjects. "Fact, chronological structure, cause and effect should be restored to history—history, to be sure, conceived in a broad

humanistic spirit . . . but history which will be built around skeletal form and not confined to amorphous homilies on social living."

These are only four statements, appearing during an eighteen-month period. But they come from eminent and responsible sources, they were widely circulated, and they have not been, and will not be, rare and isolated utterances. Insofar as they relate to elementary and secondary schools, and to higher education as it is likely to develop, the statements show little understanding either of changes that have come, and that will continue to come, in the school and college population, or of the purposes and status of Progressive Education in the schools. Yet the charges need to be considered for whatever real basis they may have and because, sound or unsound, the charges are certain to be widely echoed.

Several specific questions need to be answered. (1) What is progressive education? (2) Is progressive education responsible for the specific weaknesses, to the extent that they actually exist, pointed out by the critics of modern education, and (3) if not, what are the causes of such weaknesses? (4) How are the weaknesses to be attacked?

WHAT IS PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION?

PROGRESSIVE education" means pretty much what anyone wants it to mean. For most individuals it is a general point of view rather than a specific set of principles and practices. For some it represents anything that they believe to be good in education. For others it is, just as simply, anything bad or objectionable in education. For many who spell progressive without a capital initial it is simply necessary and sensible adaptation to new needs of society and youth and to new knowledge and improved techniques in education.

Even within the Progressive Education Association there has been wide divergence of opinion and practice. The platform of the organizers of the PEA in 1918-19, however, included emphasis on (1) freedom to develop naturally; (2) interest as the motive of all work; (3) the teacher as a guide, not a taskmaster; and (4) scientific study of pupil development. These points were not new, nor has acceptance of them been at any time a monopoly of PEA members.

In 1938, reviewing its influence through twenty years, the PEA claimed that it had brought more pupil participation in planning individual and group work; more investigation by pupils; more

opportunity to follow special interests; greater use of the community; more careful evaluation of teaching; stimulation of creative impulses; more opportunity for expression in various forms; and a freer, more "functional" curriculum.

It is no disparagement of PEA leadership to observe that many educators outside that organization, including good teachers in all generations, have done much to advance some or all of these movements. But so far as criticisms of results are concerned, it must also be observed that few indeed have been the schools, and relatively few the teachers, that have committed themselves to the kind of program implied by the PEA platform and list of influences.

LIMITED INFLUENCE

MOST schools have remained far more "traditional" than "progressive." In all but a few schools curricula have remained fixed. Subjects, textbooks, and tests of information and of content mastery have been maintained. Discipline and classroom procedures have continued formal. Special interests have found more recognition outside than in classes. Community contacts have remained few. To such general criticisms as have been quoted earlier, proponents of progressive education could retort that neglect rather than adoption of their principles and practices is responsible for shortcomings; that progressive education can scarcely be held accountable for weaknesses in programs that it has not influenced.

On the other hand the Eight Year Study of the PEA demonstrated that, in the selected schools where PEA principles were applied, the results, as carefully evaluated by both secondary schools and colleges were excellent. In some other situations where progressive practices appear to have proved less effective it may be observed that such practices include little magic; the quality of teachers, class size, and teaching equipment and resources continue to be powerful factors in determining results. It is, in fact, in such factors as these that the sources of current educational failures are found. For the twentieth century has brought new responsibilities and challenges to the schools and colleges which, if they have developed parallel with the progressive movement, have by no means been created by it.¹

¹ These responsibilities and their implications for secondary education were recognized by President James Bryant Conant of Harvard University at Teachers College, Columbia University, on November 15, after this editorial was in press.

NEW NEEDS AND RESPONSIBILITIES

CRITICS of modern education who demand a return to a classical curriculum and emphasis on intellectual discipline ignore the fact that the school population has expanded to include practically all the children of all the people. Secondary as well as elementary pupils are no longer a select group of high-ability students looking forward to entering a liberal-arts college. As enrollments have jumped, an ever-larger proportion of children and youth come to the schools, and even the colleges, with little academic interest or ability. Many are unable to learn effectively through long-established methods and materials. Many come from homes and sections where environmental influences are bad. Many bring physical and social as well as mental handicaps to the schools; for them effective learning may require prior attention to personal problems that were once the primary concern of parents and homes rather than of schools and teachers.

American society and American education are committed to the fullest possible development of each individual. The new school population cannot be turned away, and it cannot be neglected, at any level of education. Yet it presents far more difficult problems than the select group, from relatively favorable home environments, with which the schools were once concerned. Moreover the new needs must be met in addition to the old, and the old are complicated as society continues to change and as new needs of students possessing high academic ability must be met.

It is easy, arguing *post hoc propter hoc*, to blame progressive education for difficulties and weaknesses of which we have become conscious during the past twenty-five years. But such reaction is scarcely constructive; it merely distracts attention from analysis and effort that attempt to be constructive.

The schools should help to develop good manners and good morals. But they cannot do it alone, and they have little way of influencing many homes and environments where bad manners and bad morals cancel school influence. Schools should reduce juvenile delinquency. But they cannot do so alone, no matter how excellent their precepts or the examples they provide. No one familiar with the home and community backgrounds of a large number of youth would blame "the devastation of rampant adolescents and pre-adolescents" on any kind of school—including the decidedly non-progressive schools

attended by most underprivileged children and youth. In fact, if the deplorable conditions to which Presidents Butler and Sproul call attention are to be attacked, the strategy must follow exactly the lines laid down by progressives: capitalize any interests that can be discovered, study individuals, adapt to their capacities, work with the home and community, and develop as fully as may be possible the initiative and responsibility of individuals.

THERE is nothing in this program that necessitates or implies depriving the child of his intellectual, social, and spiritual inheritance. On the contrary, for many pupils the program is simply an effort to make them aware of a heritage that many like them have never discovered. There is nothing in the program that reduces discipline in manners and morals. On the contrary, for many pupils, it is again a novel attempt to provide, under serious handicaps, a discipline to which many like them were never subjected. It is not encouragement of delinquency or devastation but intelligent effort to reduce both.

Progressive education, in theory and usually in practice, is directed toward the highest type of discipline—self-discipline. So far as both teachers and learners are concerned, that is the most difficult kind of discipline. The line between freedom and restraint is hard to draw, and must be drawn at different points for different individuals. Initiative must be encouraged, responsibility assigned. As with adults, mistakes cannot be avoided. They can and should be used, but they must be tolerated if growth is to occur.

There is nothing in education for self-discipline, good manners, good morals, growth in initiative and responsibility that implies transfer of "control of the school in large part from the teachers to pupils," or asking pupils to do nothing they do not like to do, or teaching them nothing they do not wish to learn. Nor is there any necessity, as efforts are made to meet needs of many less academically able pupils, for neglecting to stimulate and develop self-discipline in more academically able students. But intelligently conceived programs, specially trained teachers, adequate school resources, and co-ordination with other agencies concerned with children and youth are implied. Such developments are not aided by destructive criticism or recommendations that new responsibilities of the schools be abandoned or slighted, or that we return to a concept of education that is essentially, and pretty much exclusively, aristocratic.

THE charges relating to the Army are interesting. The brief report of General Kirk's charge that "men who as children were allowed much freedom and self-expression are no good as soldiers and are the first to crack under strain" includes no supporting data. The graduates of progressive schools whom the writer knows have not cracked; most have adjusted well to military life and advanced rapidly. And those men whom he knows who have discharges based on some form of psycho-neurosis happen to be graduates of schools where rigid discipline was maintained.

Moreover, as Professor Goodwin Watson points out in the summer, 1944, issue of *Child Study*, the Army in this war has stressed development of understanding. He quotes statements of officers and in manuals that stress need for understanding, consideration of the individual, use of projects. Certainly the armed forces have attempted to capitalize rather than ignore individual differences. The war record would seem to endorse such policies. If the college graduates who became officer candidates were weak in mathematics and "discipline in exactness" they apparently had something else that made it possible for them to acquire both technical competence and discipline quickly. Whether that something else was a product of progressive education would be hard to establish, but at least the influence of progressive education had not destroyed it.

THE social studies have long had assigned to them special responsibility for developing good citizenship. Part of that responsibility is related to subject matter that teaches knowledge and develops understanding needed by citizens in a democracy. We must do our best to see that citizens are informed about the world they live in.

But the social studies share with the rest of the school program, and with agencies outside the school, responsibility for developing other civic competencies—initiative, responsibility, good manners, good morals, respect for law, ability to get on with others, ability to adapt to change. These competencies—and the effective teaching of information, for that matter—involve procedures that both critics and proponents associate with progressive education.

With the attacks on and defense of progressive education as Progressive Education we need not necessarily be involved. But with progressive education as good education, or effort better to discharge school responsibilities, we are very much concerned. For only as education is effective in terms of those whom we teach, and only as responsibilities, old and new, are discharged in terms of those whom we teach, can social studies instruction be good education in citizenship.

ERLING M. HUNT

The Fifth Column in Our Early Wars

Louis M. Jaffe

THE WARNINGS of our leaders against the dangers of the Fifth Column today take on added meaning when we study the opposition in our early wars of independence. An examination of each opposition's propaganda techniques, activities, and motives reveals almost identical patterns of obstruction. On the eve of each war we find the opposition accusing the administration of deliberately provoking the impending conflict; we find it urging any compromise as preferable to what it chooses to characterize as an unjust war whose ultimate outcome can only be calamitous for the nation. Samuel Seabury, under the title of "Westchester Farmer," expressed this idea most aptly in "The Congress Canvassed" (November, 1774):

It is our duty to make some proposals of accommodation with our parent country. And they ought to be reasonable ones. . . . But if we expect to oblige her to propose a reconciliation, . . . to force her to concede everything, while we will concede nothing—if we are determined to proceed as we have done, continually rising in our demands and increasing our opposition—I dread to think of the consequence. . . . War will result and victory will only lead to civil war. But it is much more probable, that the power of the British arms would prevail; and then, . . . confiscations and executions must close the horrid tragedy.¹

The Federalists during Jefferson's administration ridiculed the stories and figures of British impressment of American sailors as deliberately exaggerated to create friction between the United States and Great Britain. Senator Timothy Pickens of Massachusetts, leader of the Essex Junto which was the spearhead for fifth-column activity by the Federalists, in writing to his nephew insisted (January 18, 1808) that England would make suitable reparations in the "Chesapeake" affair and "that if after all a war with England

should ensue, the fault will be our own."² A typical resolution adopted at a meeting in Gloucester, Massachusetts, January 23, 1809, declared:

In our opinion the national Cabinet has given to this country and the world the most indubitable evidence of their insincerity, that their great study has been to involve this country in a war with Great Britain, and of course to form a coalition with France, regardless of consequences.³

Similar thoughts were prevalent throughout the North on the eve of Fort Sumter. Philip Foner has given us a detailed account of how the merchants of New York City strove to prevent what they considered a wholly unnecessary conflict. A typical attitude was expressed by a leading merchant: "Why should we contend? Why paralyze business, turn thousands of the industrious and worthy poor out of employment, . . . destroy our once prosperous and happy nation, and perhaps send multitudes to premature graves—and all for what?"⁴ At a meeting of prominent merchants in New York City (December 17, 1860) the main speaker indicated "that he believed the South was justified in breaking away from those who were always 'interfering with Southern affairs.'"⁵ The tremendous pressure exerted on Lincoln to compromise, which, in effect, meant surrender, is well known. In fact, the *New York Herald* (February 26, 1861) called upon Lincoln to give up the Presidency in order to appease the South.⁶ One has merely to consult Congressional and newspaper files on the eve of Pearl Harbor to bring this pattern of obstruction up to date.

¹ Cited in Moses Coit Tyler, *The Literary History of the American Revolution* (New York: Putnam, 1897), vol. I, p. 344.

² Cited in Henry Adams, *History of the United States of America, 1801-1817* (New York: Scribner's, 1921), vol. IV, p. 184f.

³ Cited in *ibid.*, p. 415.

⁴ Cited in Philip S. Foner, *Business & Slavery; the New York Merchants & the Irrepressible Conflict* (Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina Pr., 1941), p. 274.

⁵ Cited in *ibid.*, p. 228.

⁶ Cited in Carl Sandburg, *Abraham Lincoln; the War Years* (New York: Harcourt Brace, 1939), vol. I, p. 12.

This account of the opposition before and during the Revolution, the War of 1812, and the Civil War, is contributed by a teacher in the Samuel J. Tilden High School, Brooklyn, New York.

WITH the outbreak of hostilities, the opposition bent every effort to undermine morale. Where we had an active ally as the French in the Revolutionary War, the motives of the ally were assailed. Thus a diary of the future (1789) published in the *New York Gazette* (March 17, 1779) related how the French autocratic Catholics were dominating the American democratic Protestants in America.⁷

One typical Tory poem concluded:

Can love for you in him take root,
Who's Catholic, and absolute?
I'll tell these croakers how he'll treat 'em;
Frenchmen, like storks, love frogs—to eat 'em.⁸

The leading Tory poet, Jonathan Odell, penned "An Indictment of Washington" which asked:

Was it ambition, vanity, or spite
That prompted thee with Congress to unite?⁹

The Continental Congress was denounced in the *New York Gazette* (May 23, 1778) as a group of "obscure, pettifogging attorneys, bankrupt shopkeepers, outlawed smugglers . . . the refuse and dregs of mankind. . . ."¹⁰ It is not surprising to find Benedict Arnold appropriating these ideas to justify his treachery. In an appeal to the soldiers of the Continental army to follow him, he wrote in part (October 20, 1780):

You were promised liberty by the leaders of your affairs, but is there an individual in the enjoyment of it, except your oppressors? Who among you dare speak or write what he thinks, against the tyranny which has robbed you of your property, imprisons your persons, drags you to the field of battle, and is daily deluging your country with your blood?¹¹

The Federalist propaganda closely resembled that of the Tories. Timothy Pickering wrote to Samuel Putnam (February 4, 1814) of measures to be passed "by which the United States shall be rescued from that thralldom in which a pack of petty tyrants, under the auspices of their execrable leader of Monticello, have involved them."¹² The Massachusetts Senate included in a resolution adopted in 1813 the words: ". . . that in a

war like the present, waged without justifiable cause. . . ."¹³ The worst Federalist calumny presented Jefferson and Madison as the obedient servants of Napoleon. Innumerable resolutions make this charge which was most viciously phrased by Pickering in his letter to Edward Pennington immediately after the outbreak of hostilities (July 12, 1812):

You ascribe the war to the arts of Napoleon; but all his arts would have failed, were not our own rulers corrupt. It is rarely that bribery can be detected and exposed upon evidence. I cannot therefore undertake to affirm that French money has been liberally distributed on this occasion, although I entertain no doubt of it.¹⁴

THE Copperheads outdid the Tories and the Federalists. No slander was too vile if it could serve to discredit Lincoln or his party. It was rumored that he insisted upon being paid in gold instead of greenbacks, that his wife was secretly giving information to the Confederacy, that Congress was planning to change his term of office to life. Epithets hurled at him ranged from liar, thief, and buffoon to gorilla, fiend, butcher, and tyrant.¹⁵ In an address to the House, Congressman Vallandigham, the outstanding Copperhead, called for an immediate cessation of hostilities and then continued:

The war for the Union is, in your hands, a most bloody and costly failure. . . . War for the Union was abandoned; war for the Negro openly begun. . . . If, today, we secure peace and begin the work of reunion we shall yet escape; if not, I see nothing before us but universal political and social revolution, anarchy, and bloodshed. . . .¹⁶

A favorite Copperhead song shouted:

God save our wretched land,
From Lincoln's traitor band.¹⁷

Their blind partisanship led the Copperhead press to ridicule Lincoln's immortal Gettysburg address. Thus the *Harrisburg Patriot and Union* sneered: "We pass over the silly remarks of the President; for the credit of the nation we are willing that the veil of oblivion shall be dropped over them and that they shall no more be repeated or thought of."¹⁸ Once again this pattern

⁷ Cited in Tyler, *op. cit.*, vol. II, p. 75ff.

⁸ Cited in Frank Moore, Ed., *Songs and Ballads of the American Revolution* (New York: Appleton, 1856), p. 240.

⁹ Cited in Tyler, *op. cit.*, vol. II, p. 125.

¹⁰ Cited in *ibid.*, vol. II, p. 57.

¹¹ Cited in Isaac Arnold, *The Life of Benedict Arnold* (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg, 1880), p. 322ff.

¹² Cited in Henry Adams, *Documents Relating to New England Federalism* (Boston: Little, Brown, 1905), p. 391. A great deal of amazing Federalist correspondence is reproduced in this unusual volume.

¹³ Cited in Adams, *History of the United States*, vol. VII, p. 64f.

¹⁴ Cited in Adams, *New England Federalism*, p. 388.

¹⁵ Full list given in Sandburg, *op. cit.*, vol. III, p. 390.

¹⁶ Cited in James Ford Rhodes, *History of the United States* (New York: Macmillan, 1899), vol. IV, p. 226-7.

¹⁷ Cited in Elbert J. Benton, *The Movement for Peace Without a Victory During the Civil War* (Collections, Western Reserve Historical Society, no. 99, Cleveland, December, 1918), p. 22.

¹⁸ Cited in Sandburg, *op. cit.*, vol. II, p. 472.

of obstruction can be brought up to date by a study of opposition propaganda in the present conflict.

THE opposition was not remiss in putting their ideas into action. Professor Sanders has given us a fine summary of typical Tory activities:

During the seven years of war that followed the Declaration of Independence, Tories operated in various ways to embarrass the Patriot cause: they used their influence to depreciate the Continental currency, they carried on proselytizing activities among the lukewarm and the undecided, they tried to frighten Protestants by pointing to the French-Roman Alliance, and the more disreputable elements among them engaged in thievery and interference with the mail.¹⁹

Nor were the patriots unaware of the dangers. "Washington repeatedly complained of the 'diabolical and insidious arts and schemes carried on by the Tories to raise distrust, dissensions and divisions among us'"²⁰ and the New York Convention in a letter to Washington (August 9, 1776) declared that "if America fell, it would be by the death-thrust of the loyalists rather than by the British."²¹

The Federalist activities were cut out of the same cloth. When the government called for loans to help meet war expenses, New Englanders were openly threatened with social ostracism if they dared to subscribe. In one drive, New England, with most of the country's liquid capital, subscribed \$3 million compared to \$35 million subscribed by the Middle Atlantic states. The attempt to increase the size of the army in the latter part of 1814 by the conscription of state militia was bitterly denounced by Senator Mason of New Hampshire as "not only inconsistent with the provisions and spirit of the Constitution, but also with all the principles of civil liberty. In atrocity it exceeds those measures adopted by the late Emperor of France for the subjugation of Europe. . . ."²² William Wirt indicated how Madison reflected the despair engendered by Federalist agitation: "He looks miserably shattered and woe-begone. In short, he looked heart-

broken. His mind is full of the New England sedition."²³

The record of the Copperheads was equally harassing. Secret societies, the most prominent of which were the Sons of Liberty, Knights of the Golden Circle, and Order of American Knights, were organized to carry out their treasonable activities. Their strength was centered mainly in the Northwest and their ultimate aim was either peace on the basis of the status quo or secession of the Northwest. Creation of legal obstacles to interfere with the orderly processes of conscription, destruction of draft records, draft riots, aiding and abetting of desertion—these were the normal everyday activities of the Copperheads. Eloquent tribute was paid to their effectiveness when Senator Sumner wrote to a friend: "The President tells me that he now fears the fire in the rear . . . more than our military chances."²⁴

FEAR OF SOCIAL REVOLUTION

THE key to the opposition is found in its contempt and fear of the common man. This is most clearly seen in the Revolutionary War and War of 1812. An independent America, the Tories felt, would mean a democratic America ruled by the common man—a state of affairs hostile to their conception of the natural order of society. It was this fear and this fear alone that converted many colonists into Tories for, although the mother country might prove a stern mistress, she, nevertheless, did guarantee a desirable status quo. Samuel Seabury expressed this thought most vividly in 1774 in his "Free Thought on the Proceedings of the Continental Congress":

Will you submit to them, should they be chosen by the weak, foolish, turbulent part of the country people? . . . No, if I must be enslaved, let it be by a king at least, and not by a parcel of upstart, lawless committee-men. If I must be devoured, let me be devoured by the jaws of a lion, and not gnawed to death by rats and vermin.²⁵

Ridicule was a favorite weapon of the Tories but it could not serve to hide their underlying fear. Witness a typical outburst in Rivington's *Royal Gazette* (October, 1780):

As for his religion, he could mix
And blend it well with politics,
For 'twas his favorite opinion,
In mobs was seated all dominion.
All power and might he understood

¹⁹ Jennings B. Sanders, *Early American History* (New York: Prentice Hall, 1938), p. 584.

²⁰ Cited in Claude H. Van Tyne, *The Loyalists in the American Revolution* (New York: Macmillan, 1902), p. 149.

²¹ Cited in Alexander C. Flick, *Loyalism in New York During the American Revolution* (New York: Columbia University Pr., 1901), p. 109.

²² Cited in Adams, *History of the United States*, vol. VIII, p. 271.

²³ Cited in *ibid.*, p. 231.

²⁴ Cited in Benton, *op. cit.*, p. 35f.

²⁵ Cited in Frederick C. Prescott and John H. Nelson, Eds., *Prose and Poetry of the Revolution* (New York: Crowell, 61, 1925), p. 35.

Rose from the sovereign multitude:
That right and wrong, that good and ill,
Were nothing but the rabble's will.²⁰

That atrocity stories buttressed this contempt and fear is indicated by John Fiske:

Border tradition tells of an Indian who, after murdering a young mother with her three children, as they sat by the evening fireside, was moved to pity by the sight of a little infant sweetly smiling at him from its cradle; but his Tory comrade picked up the babe with the point of his bayonet, and, as he held it writhing in mid-air, exclaimed, "Is not this also a d—d rebel?" There are many tales of like import, and whether always true or not they seem to show the reputation which these wretched men had won. The Tory leaders took less pains than Thayendanegea to prevent useless slaughter, and some of the atrocities permitted by Walter Butler have never been outdone in the history of savage warfare.²¹

And Carl Van Doren in his *Secret History of the American Revolution* comments that: "... there were frontier Americans who hated the usurpers in Congress more than the [Indian] raiders from Niagara and were willing to sacrifice their rebel neighbors to the savages."²²

Similarly, the Federalists hated Jefferson as the leader of the common man. The Federalists were the upper classes—chiefly the mercantile groups—and democracy was anathema to them. It was this fear that made them, like the Tories in 1776, willing to suffer the losses caused by England's violation of the United States neutrality so long as they retained England's friendship—the friendship of the bulwark of conservatism. This attitude was further strengthened by England's stand against Napoleon who represented both the hated principles of the French Revolution and the confirmation of the Federalists' belief that democracy must eventually give way to tyranny. Thus Timothy Pickering uttered his famous toast at a public dinner (June 11, 1810): "The world's last hope, Britain's fast anchored isle."²³ And Fisher Ames, as the philosopher of Federalism, repeatedly proclaimed:

There is universally a presumption in democracy that promises everything; and at the same time an imbecility that can accomplish nothing, not even preserve itself.²⁴

²⁰ Cited in Winthrop Sargent, Ed., *The Loyalist Poetry of the Revolution* (Philadelphia [Collins] 1857), p. 129.

²¹ John Fiske, *The American Revolution* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1919), vol. II, p. 86.

²² Carl Van Doren, *Secret History of the American Revolution* (New York: Viking, 1941), p. 131.

²³ Cited in James Schouler, *History of the United States of America* (New York: Dodd, Mead, 1904), vol. II, p. 349.

²⁴ Cited in Vernon L. Parrington, *Main Currents in American Thought* (New York: Harcourt Brace, 1927-30), vol. II, p. 287.

A democracy cannot last. Its nature ordains, that its next change shall be into a military despotism. . . .²⁵ The people, as a body, cannot deliberate. Nevertheless, they will feel an irresistible impulse to act, and their resolutions will be dictated to them by their demagogues.²⁶

It was this violent hatred and fear, as we have already noted, that led to the widely circulated calumny of Jefferson's and Madison's subordination to France. It was this violent hatred and fear that also led the Federalists down the path toward treason. On the eve of the war, Federalist leaders were secretly meeting with the British ambassador to the United States to advise how England could best act in the developing crisis between England and the United States. And as Foster, the British ambassador, concluded in his official report to his government of this meeting: "... they [the two Federalist leaders who remained unnamed for obvious reasons] seemed to think that Great Britain could by management bring the United States into any connection with her that she pleased."²⁷ It was this hatred and fear that led the Federalists to deplore our early naval victories and hope for reversals:

Even in my district the active opposers of the war are falling off every day, and unless we shortly meet with some reverses, the Administration will shortly find more friends than enemies in this State. . . . The impression is becoming universal that the enemy cannot harm us if he would. A few hard blows struck in the right place would be of great service to the country.²⁸

The motives of the Copperheads are not as clearly defined as those of the Tories and Federalists. Broadly speaking, they may be summarized as a combination of business as usual (the Northern merchants who hated the loss of their lucrative Southern trade) and politics as usual (the hatred of Lincoln as the leader of an upstart minority party). As Benton concludes:

They were bent on the overthrow of Abraham Lincoln as a menace to the theory of government which they had set up. To do this it was necessary to defeat the Union armies in the field. The defeat of Union candidates at the polls would follow. The defeat of the armies was essayed by a propaganda to undermine the morale of the soldiers, to discourage enlistment, to encourage desertion and pro-

²⁵ Fisher Ames, "The Dangers of American Liberty" in *Works* (Boston: Little, Brown, 1854), vol. II, p. 382.

²⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 393.

²⁷ Cited in Adams, *History of the United States*, vol. VI, p. 175.

²⁸ Letter of Hansen to Pickering, October 16, 1813, cited in Adams, *History of the United States*, vol. VI, p. 70. Perhaps the charge of bluelight Federalists is not as farfetched as is generally believed—the accusation that Federalists along the coastline used blue lights to guide the British ships.

test the deserters. This was the program from the first days of the Civil War.³⁵

It was this hatred that led to the assassination of Lincoln and even had many Notherners hailing this tragic news, as *Harper's Weekly* sadly commented in April, 1865.

THE fight against the Tories was carried on most vigorously by our Revolutionary War leaders. Washington called them "abominable pests of society"³⁶ and urged stern measures for their suppression. A typical witticism declared: "A Tory is a thing whose head is in England, and its body in America, and its neck ought to be stretched."³⁷ Laws limiting their freedom of speech and movement, boycotts, arrests, exile and even terror, both legal and extralegal was their lot in almost every state. And an authority of this period concludes: "If we regard the sum of these restraints, the wings of Loyalist freedom were very closely clipped."³⁸ The Tories denounced and ridiculed these restrictions as unjustifiably violating the very liberties for which the patriots professed to be fighting. As their clever parody of the Declaration of Independence proclaimed (printed in full in *Rivington's Royal Gazette*, November 17, 1781): "We find them contending for liberty of speech, and at the same time controlling the press, by means of a mob, and persecuting every one who ventures to hint his disapprobation of their proceedings."³⁹ Washington had very early uttered the sentiments of those patriots who were insisting upon harsh treatment for obstructionists and who refused to be swayed by what they considered to be specious objections.⁴⁰

Lincoln was equally vigorous in his prosecution of the Copperheads. While the press was leniently dealt with, the writ of habeas corpus was suspended and many arrests were made (variously estimated from 13,535 to 38,000). A vigorous campaign of counter-propaganda was initiated by the government and organizations of loyal citizens which distributed tremendous quantities of liter-

ature. Through the clever work of secret-service men who achieved high ranks, the secret societies were unmasked and destroyed.⁴¹

The Copperheads continually raised the slogan of freedom of speech and press to justify their obstruction. When Vallandigham was arrested and ordered deported for seditious utterances, a meeting of protesting Ohio citizens resolved: "Surely it is not necessary to subvert free government in this country in order to put down the rebellion, and it cannot be done under the pretense of putting down the rebellion."⁴² Lincoln posed the problem of freedom of speech and press in wartime sharply when he replied to Erastus Corning (June 12, 1863):

Must I shoot a simple-minded soldier boy who deserts, while I must not touch a hair of a wily agitator who induces him to desert? This is none the less injurious when effected by getting a father, or brother, or friend into a public meeting, and there working upon his feelings till he is persuaded to write the soldier boy that he is fighting for a bad cause, for a wicked administration of a contemptible government, too weak to arrest and punish him if he shall desert. I think that in such a case, to silence the agitator and save the boy is not only constitutional, but withal a great mercy.⁴³

On the other hand, Madison was powerless in the face of Federalist opposition. There are evidences of sporadic action by patriotic citizens against the Federalists but almost none of organized government action. It was this impotence that prompted England to proffer ridiculous peace terms⁴⁴ which were nevertheless hailed as reasonable by the Federalists. These proposals might have served as the basis of peace negotiations had not general war weariness after the long Napoleonic wars and rumors of threatening outbreaks on the Continent forced England to desire an immediate peace with the United States. Perhaps, in the action of Washington and Lincoln and in the inaction of Madison may be found the needed lessons for later times.

⁴¹ Cited in Mayo Fesler, "Secret Political Societies in the North During the Civil War," *Indiana Magazine of History*, vol. XIV, September, 1918, p. 269.

⁴² Cited in Randall, *op. cit.*, p. 179.

⁴³ Letter to Erastus Corning, chairman of a similar protest meeting held in Albany, New York.

⁴⁴ The United States among other things was to renounce all military rights to the Great Lakes, give up a considerable portion of Maine and cede a portion of its Northern territory to the Indians to serve as a buffer state.

³⁵ Benton, *op. cit.*, p. 32.

³⁶ Cited in Van Tyne, *op. cit.*, p. 223.

³⁷ Cited in *ibid.*, p. 192.

³⁸ Cited in Van Tyne, *The American Revolution* (New York: Harper, 1905), p. 259.

³⁹ Cited in Van Tyne, *The Loyalists in the American Revolution*, p. 316.

⁴⁰ Cited in *ibid.*, p. 211.

The Practical Uses of History

C. W. de Kiewiet

A WAR fought with machines and all the resources of practical science and technology has imposed a preponderantly practical and technical character upon education. The complaints have been strong that the war has helped to thrust the cultural and nontechnical subjects of high school and college curricula into even less space and smaller regard than ever. This pessimism is deepened by the reflection that nearly ten million young men will have seen at first hand and in a concentration without parallel the great power of machinery and the practical skills that produce and operate them. Will these men return to insist through word and deed that education must yield even more than it already has to the practical and vocational needs of modern society? President Conant of Harvard and President Hutchins of Chicago both say yes, the former cheerfully, the latter gloomily. Those veterans who themselves return to complete their interrupted education will enter the classroom with the anxiety of lost years upon their minds, in a hurry therefore to move into the security of jobs. Not colleges alone but high schools too will be swept into compliance, giving more work that ministers directly to the needs of jobs in business and industry.

It is by no means certain that these forebodings are well founded. In the absence of real evidence it seems just as reasonable to assume that a significant proportion of the students in school and college—whether veterans or not—will be eager to learn about the social and political forces that stood behind their fighting machines. They will then come with a revived and more purposeful interest in those fields of knowledge—literature,

philosophy, history—through which men gain an understanding of their own achievements and purposes.

Yet why should there be so much disturbance at the prospect of a heavy demand after the war for useful and practical subjects in the curriculum? The question whether this subject or that field of knowledge is useful or practical is really very proper. It should not be feared or resented. It will compel us to consider what we mean by the distinction between so-called cultural and practical subjects, and whether the distinction is at all meaningful. The early medieval universities did not think the distinction very meaningful, insisting in practice that the studies they offered were cultural because they were useful, or useful because they were cultural. It did not much matter which way the answer was given. This article is based on the belief that the distinction between cultural and practical subjects is largely meaningless, and that a subject like history, properly considered and properly taught, has the directest practical value in our modern society.

My definition of usefulness and practicality is the one implicit in the title which Carl Becker gave to one of his recent addresses: "What we did not know hurt us a lot." If ignorance in a certain direction does us harm in the conduct of national affairs, if ignorance exposes our society to danger or plunges it into mistaken decisions, then the knowledge which might have spared us is useful and practical. With such a definition, which is quite serious and fully defensible, the claim to practicality is reasonably met. This approach is not based upon an expedient interest in enrollment or concern for vested interests in research or teaching.

History, like other subjects in the curriculum, has been called upon to respond to new demands arising from the war. It will be called upon in the post-war years to meet additional needs for understanding the world about us. But what, inquires a professor of history at Cornell University, are the basic and continuing values of history to all who would lead their lives intelligently?

A KNOWLEDGE of history is now and always has been an indispensable qualification of the individual in any organized society. Every individual is naturally and spontaneously an historian, or perhaps more accurately, is historically minded. Were every professional historian and every teacher of history to be put into a concentration camp tomorrow, the ordinary man would

still somehow continue to generate for himself explanations of the origin, the form, and the continuous existence of the society that contains him. "History," says the Spanish proverb, "is a common meadow where everybody can make hay." The circumstances that most men will make very positive statements about historical matters is sometimes very provoking to the student of history, when he knows that the same men would keep quiet in matters concerning physics or biology. The truth is that most men implicitly regard some knowledge of history as a natural ingredient of their thought and discussion. This is so on even a primitive social level. Without benefit of professor or teacher an African tribe achieves its own historical explanation, practically useful, even though it may be compounded of accurate genealogy and inaccurate folklore.

In American life a knowledge of history has played a most significant and practical role. In the nineteenth century this country had the unparalleled responsibility of absorbing the many millions of European immigrants. They came with their diversity of tongues from northern, western, eastern, southern, and central Europe. They came from industrial and rural communities. They came with a little capital, or utterly destitute. The account of why they came, whence they came, and how they came, in what condition of body and spirit, will always lie beyond the reach of adequate verbal description.

America decided that the illiterate amongst them should not remain illiterate, as little as those who had come out of hopelessness should persist in their despair. Above all it was clear that Croats or Norwegians or Italians should not be found unaltered as Croats or Norwegians or Italians in the second or third generation after their coming. The tasks of filling the western lands with population, of building towns on the shores of lakes and industries on the banks of rivers were secondary to the great task of influencing the mind and feeling of millions of men, women, and children, till they accepted the assumptions of American life, till it was possible to speak of an American nation—a nation clad in motley perhaps, in the eyes of a native Frenchman or Spaniard, but undeniably a nation.

In that achievement, which two world wars have proven to be substantial, history and the teaching of history played an indispensable part. In any society history and the teaching of history have two principal functions. They are the functions of Peter—to bind and to loose. In the nineteenth century, while the alchemy of the melting

pot was imposing an American shape on immigrant shapelessness, teachers of history served to bind men to their adopted society. The history which they taught was not always the product of an objective research. It was the history of poorly trained teachers and indifferently equipped schoolhouses, of town meetings and political rallies, of newspaper editorials and patriotic celebrations. Into it went ascertained fact, but also the folklore of the revolution and the mythology of the founding fathers. That the birth of the nation had come through revolution and a war against an outside power gave that history a unique power of gripping the imagination and convincing the mind. It is true that it produced beliefs that finally had to be purged of disproportion, prejudice, and myth. It had an especial responsibility for the callowness of popular thought on many domestic and foreign issues. But it did thrust its way through to a real and necessary achievement.

TO SAY that history has the functions of binding and loosing is seemingly to deal in contradictions. The contradiction disappears when we remember that history has not merely the function of discerning and explaining the pattern of past happening and achievement that gives a society its identity and its knowledge of itself; it has also the function of preparing the way for the future. Let there be no misunderstanding at this point. History does not predict the future or in any way identify it. But it is the indispensable basis for thought, decision, and action in social and political matters. In the life of societies there are periods when the need for new thought, new decision, and new action is urgent. These are of course the seasons of great crisis and transition, of war and instability. It is then that men have an especial need to be relieved of habits that have become hindrances, of conceptions that constrain their intellects, and of attachments that paralyze their will to action. This is what history can help to do and where it becomes, even more than before, an intensely practical and purposeful activity. Such history is not exhortation. Still less is it propaganda. It must always seek to expel partisan feeling or utopian fancy, but never so much as when it becomes, as it must become in our own generation of crisis, the basis for the decision and action of men who are finding their way through perilous times.

It is not sufficiently appreciated how much the military and political conduct of the war is being

guided by the results of historical reflection. The insistence upon unconditional surrender, upon the capitulation of the enemy general staffs, and a host of lesser and greater decisions taken by the political and military leadership of the Allies depend upon knowledge obtained through historical study. The best illustrations are complex, calling for an unduly large body of comment. A striking and brief illustration of the loosing or emancipating activity of history comes from the Germans themselves. When they decided after the advent of Hitler to build a new war machine, they turned their attention to the total experience, military as well as political, of the war which they had lost in 1918. Their defeat made them realize that the methods they had then employed could not be used again. They had to emancipate themselves from the conceptions and traditions upon which they had depended. Thus historical research of a very frank and resolute nature came to be one of the most important forms of preparation for the Second World War, the basis of some of the most startling actions in either a diplomatic or a military way. The lesson for us is not that history and historical information served as a preparation for war, but that the Germans recognized, as the British, French, and

Americans did not sufficiently recognize, that historical knowledge brings clarification, and through clarification enables men to relate action to the purposes which they have set for themselves.

When the Germans themselves fell into the disaster which they had prepared for their enemies, they turned to the history of England after Dunkirk and of Russia before Stalingrad, to find there the secrets of courage and of hope. It must be plain then that the history that nations make does not drop forgotten behind them, like the spent ashes of dead effort. It remains alive within them, an oracular essence willing to serve those who consult it in the confidence of a practical reward.

Precisely because the crisis of our generation is so severe, it follows that a new frontier of historical writing and teaching is open. Those who cross it will find that they can write and teach resolutely, in the knowledge that theirs is a task which meets those requirements of usefulness and practicality which Hume demanded in *An Enquiry concerning Human Understanding*: "... let your science be human, and such as may have a direct reference to action and society."

... I sometimes ask myself, "What is this country of ours?" "Are we a puny or a senile nation?" "Are we so impotent, and have we played so inferior a part in the present struggle that we must still our own voice until we are told what other powers seek?" I believe in national modesty. I do not believe in a national inferiority complex.

We are a young and vigorous people. In armed might and in material resources we are second to no power of the globe. We are the greatest democracy in the world today. We covet no inch of territory, and we possess no imperialistic ambitions. We have entered this war to preserve our own liberties, and to join with our allies in utterly destroying the most villainous tyrannies which modern man has seen, and which, had they triumphed, would have made life intolerable for us all.

By the blood which our fellow-Americans are shedding for our country; by the treasure which we have expended for our own war effort and for that of our valiant allies; by our own moral and material force in the world of today, I submit that we possess not only the right, but the duty, to declare to the United Nations and to the world at large what we believe should be the foundations upon which the world of the future should be constructed, and what we are prepared to contribute towards that end, so that this country of ours shall not again be plunged into war. Thus—and only thus—can we hope to obtain compensation for those bitter sacrifices which we will have made when the last gun has been fired. . . . (Sumner Welles. Address to the Foreign Policy Association, New York, October 16, 1943).

New Vistas for World History

Robert J. Alexander

ONE OF the salient features of the present war has been the emergence of new nations as important factors in the conduct of world affairs. We have seen China take her place as one of the Big Four of the United Nations. We have seen Brazil take the leadership of the Latin-American nations, enter the world conflict, and prepare for the first time in her history to send an expeditionary force, of a quarter of a million men, overseas. We have seen Australia play a vital part in the war effort of the United Nations, and Canada and South Africa play roles of recognized importance. The economic and political development of India has been vastly accelerated by the present conflict, while an army of over two million Indians has been preparing to bear the brunt of a campaign to clear the Japanese from Southeast Asia. Finally, on the Axis side, Japan has emerged as one of the most powerful nations of modern times.

All of these developments serve to emphasize the sad fact that American and Western European historians know little if anything about most of these "new" regions. Probably only a small number of these historians could identify such characters as Van Diemen, San Martín, or Balmaceda. Few students of American colonial history are aware of the fact that the early settlement of Australia was in many ways strikingly similar to early American colonization in the hardships of the colonists and in the difficulty of getting the settlers' minds switched from get-rich-quick schemes to hard work. Few students of the American Indian wars are aware of the interesting parallels between the relations among whites and Indians in the United States and whites and the Maoris in New Zealand. American historians, however familiar they may be with the prevalence of race problems in our history, know little of the part which similar problems

have played in South African history. Few Americans—or Europeans—know anything at all of Chinese or East Indian history. The same can be said about the history of Latin America.

IT IS true that in the last few years there has been a growing interest in at least some of these regions. Especially since the beginning of the war, there has been increased attention devoted to Far-Eastern history and languages. The years just previous to the American entry into the conflict saw a steady rise in the number of collegiate and university classes in Latin-American history and affairs. We have new and readable accounts of Australasia. The American Historical Association has devoted minor sessions to Latin-American and Far-Eastern affairs. At least some attempts have been made to break the ground. But the overwhelming emphasis in our history teaching is still on the doings of the United States and the nations of Western Europe.

With the emergence of these hitherto remote areas and peoples into world importance it becomes urgent that students of American history give attention to regions other than the United States and its "forebear nations." In years to come the relations of the United States with China, Japan, India, and Brazil may be at least as important as her contacts with England, France, or Germany. It is important, therefore, that American historians find out something about the background of these nations. If history is to be of any value other than as a kind of exaggerated antiquarianism, it must be able to give some clues as to how problems of the Present owe their origins to events of the Past.

In order to understand a New China, pregnant with nationalism and intent upon asserting herself and exerting an influence in keeping with her economic, geographic, and demographic importance, it will be necessary to have some grasp of the process by which China emerged from centuries of torpor and languidity and at long last launched herself on the road to becoming a modern nation. In order to get along on friendly terms with a rapidly developing Brazil, it will be helpful for Americans to know something of

The author of this summary of the case for a broader world history, formerly a graduate student in Columbia University and economist for the Board of Economic Warfare, is now in the armed forces.

the background and historical development of that country.

There are problems having a very direct bearing on United States history which are primarily in the realm of Latin-American or Far-Eastern history and which would well repay investigation by American historians. Such, for example, is the whole question of the slave trade, which was the biggest of Big Business during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries and which not only populated the West Indies, the Caribbean coast of the continent and Northern Brazil, but also had important repercussions in the United States.

GENERAL familiarity with these hitherto neglected aspects of history will come rather slowly. But the opportunity to acquire it is at hand. Some of the contacts which have been built up during the war as bonds that are primarily military or economic may easily be broadened after the war into intellectual ties. Perhaps there can be a wider exchange of students and teachers among the American nations, between the United States and the Antipodes, between the United States and other portions of the British Empire. Perhaps some of the thousands of young men and women who are becoming at least slightly familiar with Far-Eastern languages, or some of those who have come in contact with such regions as the Netherlands East Indies and India as a result of the war may see fit to continue these contacts and become students of these regions.

An intensified interest in the "newer" regions of the world should result in a broadening of historical viewpoint, not only among American historians and history students, but among Americans in general. For, although Columbus discovered the American hemisphere in 1492, the only concession to this fact that has apparently been made by historians of Western civilization is the inclusion—sometimes grudgingly upon the part of Europeans—of the history of the United States as part of world history. But world history has not yet come to include the story of China or Latin America. It does not include the history of the great Mohammedan world or of India. It pays no heed, except in passing side glances, even to the history of Russia and the Soviet Union. World history is still largely the story of the European countries fringing the North Atlantic and the Mediterranean with a latter-day addition, at the very most, of the

chronicle of events in the United States of America.

Thus, in addition to research in the histories of specific regions and countries, it would seem that some effort toward a general recasting of world history should be undertaken. When one writes a history of the world, as H. G. Wells or Hendrik Willem Van Loon have done, it would seem that the time had almost arrived when at least some reference should be made to events in far-off China and in India while Rome was rising and falling. And it would seem high time that there be a general realization that while the Western world was passing through the so-called Dark Ages and the later medieval period, the Mohammedan nations of Spain, North Africa, and the Near East were carrying high the torch of culture and civilization, while China had a standard of refinement and economic and political development which overshadowed anything then existing in the more westerly portions of the Eurasian continent. It would seem high time too, that some recognition be given to the fact that while Europe was fermenting in the late Middle Ages, getting ready to burst its bonds, a comparatively high standard of civilization was being developed in widely separated regions of the Western hemisphere; and that powerful, populous, and highly civilized nations were writing the story of their cultures in the Far East. It would seem that world history should express some realization of the fact that even during the Middle Ages there was constant contact between the Middle Kingdom of China, the various Mohammedan states in Central Asia, and the Western world.

ALL of these facts should, in time, be worked into a new synthesis of world history which will present a fairer and more balanced view of human progress. It is true that during the last three or four hundred years the white man has spread his dominion over practically the whole of the globe. Thus in some sense the history of the Western European is the most crucial factor in the history of mankind at large—at least during this period. But before this time, the histories of the other peoples of the world, independent of that of the European white man, are of equal if not superior importance to the Western European's history; and this will be even more true in the future. If we are to have what can truly be called world history, it must come to include the peoples and nations of Asia and the Americas.

Drill Work in Social Studies Classes

Clarence D. Samford

IN DISCUSSING the subject of drill work in social studies classes and on the junior-senior high school level the writer does not wish to become involved in general questions of methods of teaching. Splendid classroom activity is taking place in given instances under the leadership of various teachers who are using as many different techniques of procedure as there are instances involved. Regardless of approach and procedures used, the contention in this article is that after learning units have been dealt with there is a place for desirable drill activities.

VALUES OF DRILL

FIRST, drill work is an aid to complete mastery of subject matter. The student may have a reasonably good record of achievement and the ability to recall fairly well the materials studied for useful purposes. Add to this a well-executed drill and the chances are greatly enhanced that perfect mastery is much more nearly attained.

Second, drill work offers to the student the service of having the most important points isolated from the less important ones. Typically, this point is kept in mind in presenting overviews, guiding discussions, and organizing reviews. The drill goes one step farther and singles out those things rapidly and concisely in a final approach.

Third, while the drill is not a test of achievement, it does help greatly in ascertaining the effectiveness of classroom work that has been engaged in preceding the drill. Individual students who are below standard in mastery reveal the fact quickly to themselves, their fellow stu-

dents, and the teacher. The quality of response of an entire class serves as an index to the effectiveness of the previous teaching.

Fourth, students are helped materially in their preparation for unit tests that ordinarily follow. In fact, many students ask that pre-test drills be planned and even go so far as to take notes in rough form on drill questions and answers in order that personal test scores may be improved.

Fifth, drill work is a very enjoyable activity to probably as large a percent of students as most other activities engaged in by typical classes.

DRILL PROCEDURES

MANY teachers find that while the results of drill are much to their liking, the execution of the procedure, especially if the contest element enters in, is more difficult than average day-to-day teaching. In short, discipline may appear difficult to keep up to standard; waste of time may become manifest; disagreements on score keeping become obnoxious; etc. Practically all of these things can be eliminated by judicious teacher planning.

In the preparation of questions the point of brief and concise answers should be kept in mind. Most of them should require one-word answers and should be so phrased as not to permit optional answers. Questions of the "true-false" and "yes-no" types are unsuitable since after they are once missed they can not be passed on to other students. Again, the students should understand perfectly the method to be used in conducting the drill, including all competitive features and plans of scoring. In connection with matters of controversy, the teacher will assume the same role as that of an official at an athletic contest. Once the preliminaries have been dispensed with the drill should move with dispatch. This is necessary in order that it may be comprehensive both in the subject matter covered and in the number of students called upon. While it is desirable that students enjoy the drill as such

Urging that effective basic study and learning usually need to be supplemented by drill, a critic teacher of social studies at Ohio University describes some effective devices for stimulating student activity and interest.

there must be an understanding that the primary object is mastery of subject matter, and the techniques attending the drill are secondary. A full period should not be devoted to a drill until a sufficient amount of subject matter has been dealt with to make the lesson justifiable.

THERE are innumerable procedures for conducting drill lessons. Only a few typical ones will be suggested; these will admit variation. Most classes enjoy the contest element attained by dividing the group into two groups of equal size. This can be done by permitting two leaders of approximately equal ability to choose the students alternately and have the respective groups occupy opposite sides of the room. A class may be divided more quickly by having an alphabetical division or a geographical division in terms of the manner in which the entire group is regularly seated. More spirited results are often attained by placing the boys on one side and the girls on the other. (If there happens to be more of one sex than the other the deficiency in the smaller group can be overcome by picking the required number of average students from the smaller group and asking them two questions each during the time period than other students are asked one.)

A very successful scoring method is to allow a side two points if the person called upon answers his question correctly, one point if he does not answer it correctly but someone else on the same side volunteers and gives a correct response, and then if it remains uncorrectly answered, let it pass to the other side and grant three points for a correct answer. Tally marks should be immediately placed on the backboard to the credit of the sides as points are earned. Sometimes the teacher effectively prepares questions and passes them out on slips of paper to be read and answered, the scoring procedure remaining the same. With some classes it is possible to have the students prepare questions for use in this connection, either passing them in for the teacher to use or asking them directly of the opposite

side. In this case the teacher must always exercise the right of asking for a second question if the first one lacks aptness.

If the test on the material dealt with in the drill follows as soon as the next day, added interest can be aroused by announcing that the test papers of the two sides will be kept separate and that high and median scores will be announced for the respective sides.

ON SOME occasions it may seem desirable to conduct a drill that will stress individual rather than group performance. The spelling-bee plan is about as acceptable as any other. The student seated at the front is considered at the head of the class when the drill starts. He is asked the first question and retains his seat only if he answers the question correctly. If he fails in his response the question passes to the next student, and so on until it is correctly answered. If the question has been passed on the one who answers it correctly moves up and assumes the seat of the first person who missed it, the unsuccessful student or students moving down one seat each.

In either group or individual procedures the students may remain seated or be asked to stand along opposite sides of the room. In some instances it may prove desirable that they take their seats when incorrect answers are submitted. Sometimes it may prove possible to provide plans whereby those once seated may regain their place standing by volunteering and answering correctly another question.

In addition to the ideas that a resourceful teacher might have in planning and executing drill work additional helps can always be had by listening to contests conducted on radio programs. Invariably it will be found that many of the students have listened to a particular program frequently and understand its fundamental aspects quite well. Still another possibility for devising drill techniques is to adapt the procedures to correspond with the methods applied to the scoring of an athletic sport.

They Play Football in Class

Katherine Perrine

PSYCHOLOGY textbooks have always expounded the theory that students learn what they want to learn and that favorable "mental set" is necessary before learning can take place. For years teachers have racked their brains to answer the question "How can we make our students desire to learn?"

Western Culture is a ninth-grade course correlating English and history. Its aim is to have American students feel the relationship between the people in the western hemisphere through a knowledge of the geography, customs, cities, arts, and resources of their neighbors to the south. With the above objective in mind, the first month of the semester was spent in opening up for the students the vast channels of new and interesting possibilities in South and Central America. In general the students were made aware of their neighbors to the south by establishing a "hand shaking" acquaintanceship with each country and its people.

THE GAME

EARLY in the semester the teachers announced and explained the traditional class "football game" which would be played during the last week in October. A diagram of the football field was drawn on the blackboard. Starting on its own thirty-yard line the team strove to carry the ball down the field gaining yardage by correctly answering questions pertaining to the Americas. Each question was marked with the gain in yardage that it would reward according to the degree of hardness.

The class was divided into teams and one

The device here described has aided in stimulating interest, increasing efficiency in learning and use of skills, and developing personal qualities. It was developed at the College Demonstration High School, Montclair State Teachers College, by Dr. W. Harry Snyder, head of the social studies department, and Dr. Edwin Fulcomer, head of the English department, in a correlated course in Western Culture.

team kept the ball as long as it could answer the questions. If a team fumbled by missing the question, the other team was given possession of the ball with a new question. Here lay one of the greatest values of this technique for each unanswered question was reserved for the next quarter of play on the following day. The wise players, coached by their captains, jotted down these questions, looked up the right answers, and were prepared to answer those same questions when they came up again. Naturally, excitement ran high when such a question was drawn the second time, for this was the opportunity for a student to prove his worth to his team. It was also the teacher's opportunity to see if his motivating technique was working.

This game was played in fifteen-minute quarters on four consecutive days. The advantage of splitting the playing time lay in the fact that it gave each student an opportunity to check up on himself every night. However, the game could be played in two or three days without any loss; time spread should be adapted to meet the purpose of the teacher, the nature of the class, and the time allotted to the topic.

The kick after the touchdown, even though it added only one point, was often the deciding point in the final score. Therefore special stress was laid upon it. The kick was taken by one member of the scoring team who had been selected by his team for this special question.

Students were permitted, even encouraged, to use notes and maps during the playing time. Naturally, the person carrying the ball could not use any such information and no teammate could speak or motion to him without receiving a ten-yard penalty. However, the presence of such supplementary material allowed one team to check the decisions of the officials and it also satisfied newly aroused curiosity—a valuable factor in acquiring knowledge.

VALUE IN INCREASING KNOWLEDGE

DURING the classroom recitations in the weeks previous to the game, hints were dropped regarding the nature of the questions.

So motivated, the students read from suggested magazines and novels, looked up cities and products, studied maps, and kept their ears alert to news about the Western hemisphere.

Additional information was learned during the game as the correct responses were given and the ball advanced down the field. No student would forget the questions that permitted him to carry the "pigskin" for a gain of four, six, maybe eight yards down the field, nor would he forget the question on which he hesitated, perhaps fumbled the ball. One quiet student, having lost the ball in the second question, was given the same question in the fourth quarter. His eyes sparkled as he heard the referee reread the question which he had previously fumbled. The class waited and wondered if he had taken the suggestion, used his references, and found the answer. He had. The ball moved down the field six yards. The smiles that crossed his classmates' faces, opponents and teammates, were signs of approval. What is it the psychologists say about learning what we have the will to learn? Surely, this student is an example of one having the will to learn.

The question may be raised as to whether this same information could be acquired in a shorter period of time. Couldn't all this material plus additional facts which the students probably would never uncover, be mimeographed, stapled together, and handed to the student? Yes, but unless the student had some opportunity to use or exhibit this knowledge, he would probably leave it tucked away between the covers of his notebook. Our purpose as teachers is to stimulate the pupils to seek information on their own and make them aware of the vast channels of information available regarding such topics as the Americas.

INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP VALUES

DOES the student know where he can go to find information, does he know those sources called encyclopedias, magazines, atlases, and newspapers? How often has the reader been challenged with a question, but turned defeatist when it came to investigating the answer? If you had been the student who had the satisfaction of having found an answer once, you wouldn't give up until your question had been answered, would you? Naturally, such a limited topic didn't acquaint one with all the thousands of reference resources, but it provided a key of how to accept challenges and find information for oneself. How

often in life will these same students be forced to answer challenging questions? Will they turn defeatist, or will they accept the challenge and investigate the facts?

In addition to these two values, there is the far more practical value of presenting a life-like situation in the classroom. The team captains were nominated from the class and were chosen for their ability or personality. Here the ninth graders were seeing that those who are in important positions are there because of some characteristic. In some cases it is ability, in others it is personality. Of the five student candidates nominated, only two could win and here another lesson of life came forth. The losers had to accept defeat with a smile and willingness to co-operate. On the other hand, the winners had to accept this honor graciously.

Also, the classroom activity showed the students the necessity of co-operation, the necessity of unity, and the necessity of working with and through a leader in order to achieve the best results.

In this game the students received a lesson in self-discipline, for either they gave way to their desire to express themselves as individuals and inflicted a ten-yard penalty on their team or they had to learn to express their opinions through their captains, who represented the team as a whole. This was a lesson in sacrificing personal credit for the glory of something bigger—the team, of which each individual was merely a unit.

We cannot overlook the valuable training that the two captains received in leadership. On them rested the task of selecting the team, organizing the members, and encouraging them to study. Through the captains the team found its channel of expression and these leaders had the responsibility of thinking not for themselves, but for the team.

THIS technique is only a means of suggesting similar "how" techniques to teachers who wish to produce in their students the willingness to learn. As has been suggested, it can be used in teaching new material and it can also be used successfully as a review technique. A basketball court, baseball field, or hockey field may be substituted to bring it closer to the students. The rules may vary according to the teacher and students, but whatever its modification, the playing of the game provides a stimulating device to produce the willingness to learn.

Negro Employment: a Curriculum Unit

Helen B. Goetsch

IN THE public schools of Milwaukee, sociology is an elective in the first half of the senior year and economics in the second. Neither course is required, and students may take the work in economics without having had the course in sociology. However, most students who take economics have studied sociology. This unit is built on the assumption that most students will have studied "The Negro Problem" in the sociology course, and that all will have studied "Employment" in general in their economics course. Such work should have provided an understanding of labor unions, employment statistics, labor trends, and employment terminology, such as, "unskilled," "semi-skilled," "skilled."

Inasmuch as there is nothing in textbooks on Negro employment, the curriculum materials must be found elsewhere. Besides integrating an aspect of intercultural education into the economics course, the learning experiences resulting from this unit should also be valuable from the standpoint of general education.

There are about 12,000 Negroes in Milwaukee in a total population of approximately 600,000. This ratio of 2 per cent indicates that Milwaukee has a relatively small Negro population. There has been, however, discrimination against Negroes in employment in Milwaukee. There may be other examples of unfair labor practices.

OBJECTIVES

THE objectives underlying this unit are:

(1) To develop the ability to make a logical extension of a democratic concept to an aspect of our social life in which it does not function.

This twelfth-grade unit was prepared at the Harvard University Workshop for Intercultural Education, under the direction of Hilda Taba. The author is a social studies teacher in the Rufus King High School, Milwaukee.

(2) To develop social sensitivity to a significant problem through a critical examination of the existing situation.

(3) To develop mental integrity, a sense of social justice, and a favorable attitude toward change.

(4) To develop an awareness that the wheels of progress grind slowly, but that they do grind; i.e., faith in social progress.

(5) To develop a disposition to feel personal concern and responsibility for the solution of a social problem.

(6) To develop the skill needed to act within the limits of one's ability on behalf of ideals and values.

TOPICS, ACTIVITIES, AND MATERIALS

WHAT Should Our Democratic Concept of Equality of Opportunity Connote in Relation to Negro Employment? Equality of opportunity is a basic concept of American democracy. (1) What does this mean? (2) What meaning has it in relation to the right to work? (3) What should this concept mean in relation to Negro employment? Questions 1 and 2 are used to start the students' thinking. Students are asked to do some reading and to come prepared to discuss question 3 the second day. Students may find their own materials or read those which are suggested.¹

The students may decide that question 3 implies that Negroes should be included in all branches of work in industries, occupations, or professions to the extent that they are equally capable and qualified. They should have equal opportunity in training programs given by schools, industries, or labor unions. Negroes should be permitted to join a labor union. There should be equal pay for equal work. There should be equal opportunity for promotion.

¹ The Durham Statement. The Atlanta Statement. The Richmond Statement. (Atlanta: Commission on Interracial Cooperation, October 20, 1942. Pp. 15.)

There should be equal security and seniority rights.

What Is the Present Status of Negro Employment? Are Our Practices Consistent with the Concept of Equality of Opportunity? Negro employment in Milwaukee needs to be studied. Each student is asked to consult an adult regarding employment practices in one factory, office, or store, to determine facts. The students can work out with the teacher the questions which they need to ask. They might find out the following: How many white persons are employed? How many colored persons are employed? What types of work do the colored people do there? The technique of interviewing and gathering data will need to be discussed. Securing this information provides a direct method of inquiry and a social experience as well. The results can be tabulated in class in terms of types of work in which Negroes are found. This can be supplemented by reading.²

Negro employment in the United States may then be studied. The teacher will present the most recent figures available indicating the percentage of Negroes and whites employed in various occupations.³ It is advisable that the teacher present these statistics because a compilation is necessary from a number of sources which the ablest high school student probably could not gather together satisfactorily. The presentation should include attention to employment of Negroes in unskilled and semi-skilled work, in business enterprise, in white-collar and professional work.⁴ Comparisons with earlier statistics should

be made to discover trends in Negro employment. The teacher can present data showing the increase in the number of Negroes employed and the trend toward upgrading. The students can be urged to ask questions with regard to the statistics and to consider what conclusions can be reached from the data and what inferences cannot be made without further data.

Employment discrimination against Negroes in the United States may then be studied. Through student reading⁵ and classroom discussion, the question can be raised as to why there are so many Negroes employed in domestic and personal services; also in unskilled and semi-skilled work. Is this a matter of the education or lack of education of the Negro? There is evidence to show that Negroes have less educational opportunities than do whites.⁶ This is only part of the answer, however, in that there are many Negroes in jobs which are far below their capacities and training.⁷ There is also little incentive for Negroes to get a great deal of education while job opportunities are largely in lower occupations.

Is it prejudice on the part of the employer which accounts for discrimination? In order to answer this question, students are asked to select one of four questions for investigation and oral report: Why don't some employers want to hire Negroes?⁸ What is the attitude of those employers who do discriminate, and what examples are there?⁹ What examples are there of employers who do not discriminate?¹⁰ How satisfactory are

² *Observer*, Annual Report of the Milwaukee Urban League, 1942-1943, vol. IV, no. 8.

³ War Department restrictions make it impossible to secure recent figures showing the number of Negroes employed in various types of occupations in the United States as a whole. There are, however, estimates and findings available through comprehensive local surveys.

⁴ Mary Anderson, *No More Golden Slippers* (U.S. Department of Labor, Bulletin of the Women's Bureau, mimeographed, October, 1943. Pp. 6); Geraldine Bledsoe, *Employment of Negro Women* (*ibid.*, March, 1944. Pp. 4); Kathryn Blood, *Women Farm Workers* (*ibid.*, May, 1944. Pp. 2); *I. Women Warriors* (*ibid.*, November, 1943. Pp. 3); and *Serving the Armed Forces* (*ibid.*, June, 1944. Pp. 2); Maudelle B. Bousfield, *The Part Negro Women Are Playing in War Transportation* (Women's Advisory Committee, War Manpower Commission, Chicago, October, 1943. P. 1); Edwin R. Embree, "Negroes and the Commonweal" (*Survey Graphic*, November, 1942, pp. 491-494); Lester B. Granger, "Negroes and War Production" (*ibid.*, pp. 469-471; 543-544); "Negro Gains Seen in Post-War Jobs" (*New York Times*, February 9, 1944); *Observer*, Annual Report of the Milwaukee Urban League, 1942-43 (*loc. cit.*); Ed-

ward S. Lewis, "Progress in Interracial Relationships" (*Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work*, 1943, pp. 277-89); and *The Negro and the War* (U.S. Department of Labor, United States Labor Press Service, May 15, 1944).

⁵ *Negro Employment*, A Report of a Study Made by a Committee of Teachers of the Philadelphia Public Schools (Philadelphia: Board of Education Print Shop, 1942. Pp. 44).

⁶ Lawrence W. Cramer, "The Committee on Fair Employment Practice." (*Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work*, 1943, pp. 57-68).

⁷ *Negro Employment* (*loc. cit.*).

⁸ *Ibid.*

⁹ Bledsoe, *Employment of Negro Women* (*loc. cit.*); Kathryn Blood, *In Cafeteria Uniform* (U.S. Department of Labor, Bulletin of the Women's Bureau, February, 1944. Pp. 3) and *Stop—Look—Listen!* (*ibid.*, March, 1944. Pp. 2); Granger, "Negroes and War Production" (*loc. cit.*); and Mrs. Stanley Pargellis, *Negroes in War Industry* (Industrial Information Service of the Chicago Y.W.C.A., Bulletin, January, 1944. Pp. 3).

¹⁰ Blood, *Women Warriors* (*loc. cit.*) and *Work as One* (*ibid.*, July, 1944. Pp. 2); Granger, "Negroes and War Production" (*loc. cit.*); and Lewis, "Progress in Interracial Relationships" (*loc. cit.*).

Negro workers?²¹

Why are there so few Negroes employed in the higher occupations? Students are asked to volunteer to find answers to at least one of the following questions: Are there any Negro policemen in Milwaukee? If so, how many? If not, why? Are there any firemen? . . . any civil service employees in the City Hall? . . . in the County Court House? . . . in the Federal Building? Are there any Negro teachers in Milwaukee? . . . any ministers? . . . any lawyers? . . . any doctors? Are there any Negro members in the Common Council of Milwaukee? Do we have a Negro representative in our State Legislature in Madison? Do we send a Negro Congressman to Washington?

Is Milwaukee typical of the rest of the United States? This can be answered by student reading and classroom discussion. Is there discrimination in the Federal Civil Service? Why are there so few Negroes in the professions?²² There are some Negro judges. Do you know where they are? How many state legislatures have Negro members? There is one Negro Congressman (Illinois).

Why are there so few Negroes in white-collar jobs, in the professions, and in political positions? Class discussion can center around the following questions: Is it lack of education? Can many of them afford an expensive education? Is there a relationship between parental earnings and higher educational opportunities? The teacher can give a brief summary of *Parental Income and College Opportunities*.²³

Why Is It Important to Eliminate Discrimination in Negro Employment? Students may write an essay in answer to that question. This gives an opportunity to apply what has been learned up to this point. It will also be an evaluation aid to the teacher, as it will reveal attitudes as well as ideas.

Some essays may be read in class. From the readings and from critical discussion it will be possible to compile a list of reasons why dis-

crimination in Negro employment should be eliminated. They would be likely to include the following: Democratic lip service needs to be translated into reality. The frustration of individual Negroes would be reduced. Group conflicts, race riots, and aggressiveness would be reduced. Negro manpower is needed to win the war. Axis propaganda capitalizes on our unfairness to Negroes. Peace must be built upon the concept that democracy embraces all mankind. Equality in employment opportunities would insure national unity and discourage the idea that democracy is for white people at the expense of colored people.

What Are the Hopeful Signs Toward Better Employment Practices? All students should be encouraged to familiarize themselves through reading and class discussion with Executive Order 8802, establishing the Fair Employment Practice Committee, and be able to answer the following questions regarding it: When was the order issued? What are its provisions? What has it accomplished? What needs to be done to strengthen it?

Another hopeful sign toward the elimination of discrimination in Negro employment is in the leadership shown by the federal civil service. The percentage of Negroes employed in government positions is increasing, although some departments still discriminate. The United States Employment Service is also helping by means of a staff of Negro representatives to educate employers to the idea that a worker's skill is not conditioned by race or creed.

Some schools are helping to decrease discrimination against Negroes in employment. Here the teacher can tell the class that the schools of Springfield, Massachusetts, have established a placement bureau which is getting Negroes into secure jobs, and are also developing good-will attitudes in the school children. A general statement of what the schools can do to guide Negro students toward employment can be found in the Philadelphia Study.

Some labor unions are breaking down barriers against Negroes in employment. It is necessary here to consider the present and past policies of labor unions. In order to get firsthand information, each student is asked to interview two union members, preferably one who is a member of the A.F. of L. and one who is a member of a C.I.O. local. It is advisable to interview persons who have been members for at least five years. The students and teacher will work out the points on

²¹ Blood, *Stop—Look—Listen!* (loc. cit.); *The Negro and the War* (loc. cit.); and "Negro Gains Seen in Post-War Jobs" (loc. cit.).

²² On these questions see Granger, "Negroes and War Production" (loc. cit.); Jean Collier Brown, *The Negro Woman Worker* (U.S. Department of Labor, Bulletin of the Women's Bureau No. 165, 1938. Pp. 17); Lewis, "Progress in Intercultural Relationships" (loc. cit.); and W. E. B. DuBois, *What the Negro Has Done for the U.S. and Texas* (U.S. Department of Commerce, n. d. Pp. 10).

²³ Helen B. Goetsch, *Parental Income and College Opportunities* (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940. Pp. 150).

which data are sought, such as: The name of the local and its affiliation. Are Negroes accepted into the membership? If so, when were Negroes first admitted, and what was the pre-war attitude toward Negroes? If colored people are not now admitted, why are they excluded? The findings here may reveal whether the C.I.O. is or is not more democratic than the A.F. of L. It will also give a picture of the extent to which Negroes are now admitted to membership in local labor unions. The pre-war attitude may be found to have been much more exclusive than the present practices. If so, this shows a significant trend and a hopeful sign. However, some locals will undoubtedly be found which still exclude Negroes from their membership.

The discriminatory policies of unions can be described. Membership provisions in the constitution of some unions act as a bar to non-whites. Sometimes the membership fees are so high that they become prohibitive to colored people. Some union contracts contain clauses designed to deny promotion rights and seniority rights to Negroes. Some unions send Negroes out to certain kinds of jobs and not to others. Colored people are sometimes used as scabs where there is labor trouble. Some unions say they exclude Negroes from their membership because employers won't hire them, and some employers say they can't hire Negroes because the union doesn't have trained colored people available. Where there is a closed shop, Negroes are excluded unless they can become union members.

New York and Connecticut have laws prohibiting discrimination by labor unions. If Wisconsin has such laws, are they being enforced? If Wisconsin does not have such a law, do you think such legislation should be passed? Is passing laws an effective means of social betterment?

What evidence is there, throughout the United States, that unions are helping to integrate Negro workers into industries? Some educational committees of the C.I.O. locals go into factories to talk to workers to get better race relations. The rights of the Negro are being enforced by the International Ladies Garment Workers (A.F. of L.), the Amalgamated Clothing Workers (C.I.O.), and many others. Negroes have worked more successfully with labor unions in New York City than in most other places.

What will be the status of Negro employment in the post-war period? Is there likely to be progress or retrogression? Will the colored workers be the first to be fired? Students are asked here to write a one-page essay on "The Employment

Status of Negroes after the War." The pupils should be told that some writers are optimistic and others are pessimistic about the Negro's future. They should also see that it is difficult to forecast because we don't know what economic conditions will prevail after the war. However, this essay requires the pupil to make an appraisal of the progress which has been made.

What Techniques and Tactics Do We Need to Acquire for Taking Action to Increase Opportunities for Negroes in Employment? Progress often comes through political action. What are we capable of doing toward that end? Students may decide to write to their Congressmen requesting them to support measures for the strengthening of the F.E.P.C. This will necessitate finding out who our three Congressmen are? How is a Congressman addressed? What points can be given to justify the request?

Progress sometimes comes through organizations. Which organizations are improving the welfare of Negroes and deserve our support? One organization may be chosen by each student, such as the Urban League of Milwaukee, the Young Women's Christian Association or the Young Men's Christian Association, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, or the National Conference of Christians and Jews. A representative from each group of students can be chosen to find out what the organization has done and is doing for Negro employment? This may be done by personal interview or by letter.

SINCE there is a great deal of mobility in the population, young people ought to be prepared to take their places in life intelligently, regardless of the locale of their employment. Boys and girls in Milwaukee high schools today may find work at some later date in Detroit or New York. They need to be prepared now to view wisely the matter of employment in terms of racial goodwill.

As far as the Negro himself is concerned, probably nothing is more important than that he be given greater work opportunities. The writer believes that the greatest needs of Negroes are basically economic in nature. Colored people need to secure work opportunities on higher levels, at better wages, in order to provide themselves a higher standard of living. This will be possible only if larger and larger segments of the total population understand the Negroes' needs. Equality of opportunity will increase the general welfare of all of the people of the United States.

"Every Schoolboy Knows the History of Magna Charta"

Arthur K. Loomis

MR. BAINBRIDGE COLBY, Secretary of State under President Woodrow Wilson, recently said in a public address that, "Every schoolboy knows the history of Magna Charta." This report shows how much the members of the 11A Class in Shaker High School knew about it on February 3, 1944.

One hundred seventy-eight papers were handed in. Of this number 32 were entirely blank, and 27 had no correct information. Thus 59, or 35

INDIVIDUAL SCORES

Score in Points	Number
0	59
1	18
2	29
3	20
4	13
5	14
6	12
7	6
8	3
9	3
10	1
Total	178

ONLY ONE FACT KNOWN

	Number
1. Magna Charta is an English document	14
2. It was signed by King John	1
3. It was signed in 1215	1
4. It was written in Latin	1
5. Our Constitution owes something to Magna Charta	1
Total	18

We have recently been reminded that we need better teaching of American history. But better teaching of world backgrounds is also important, as this contribution from the former superintendent of schools at Shaker Heights, Ohio, now director of the School of Education at the University of Denver, serves to remind us.

ONLY TWO FACTS KNOWN

	Number
1. Magna Charta is an English document. Our Constitution owes something to Magna Charta.	12
2. Magna Charta is an English document. It was signed by King John.	7
3. Magna Charta is an English document. It is a declaration of rights.	5
4. Magna Charta is an English document. It was secured by force.	2
5. Magna Charta is an English document. It was signed in the 13th century.	1
6. Magna Charta is an English document. It limited the powers of the king.	1
7. Magna Charta is a declaration of rights. It was signed by King John.	1
Total	29

per cent of the class, knew nothing about Magna Charta. Allowing one point for each fact correctly stated, the scores ranged from one point to ten points. Twenty different facts were stated by two or more students.

The number and per cent of students who knew each of the facts listed below will be of interest.

FACTS UNKNOWN

	Number	Per Cent
1. Magna Charta is an important document in English history.	113	63.5
2. King John had something to do with Magna Charta.	61	34.3
3. Magna Charta was secured by force.	54	30.3
4. King John signed Magna Charta.	38	21.3
5. The barons and nobles had a part in securing Magna Charta.	33	18.5
6. The powers of the king were limited by Magna Charta.	28	15.7
7. Our Constitution owes something to Magna Charta	28	15.7
8. Magna Charta is an English declaration of rights.	27	15.2
9. Magna Charta was signed in the 13th century.	13	7.3
10. Magna Charta was signed in the Middle Ages.	5	2.8
11. Magna Charta was signed in 1215.	4	2.2

	Number	Per Cent
12. Magna Charta was signed at Runnymede on the Thames near London.	4	2.2
13. The barons forced King John to sign Magna Charta.	20	11.2
14. The barons wrote Magna Charta.	12	6.7
15. The king's powers of levying taxes were restricted by Magna Charta.	14	7.9
16. The greater part of Magna Charta was calculated to preserve the feudal rights of the barons.	9	5.1
17. Imprisonment without trial by one's peers was forbidden by Magna Charta.	3	1.7
18. The church secured certain rights in Magna Charta.	2	1.1
19. Original copies of Magna Charta are still in existence.	2	1.1
20. Magna Charta was written in Latin.	2	1.1

Some of the incorrect answers will also be of interest.

INCORRECT ANSWERS: WHEN?

1. Approximations	
Around Caesar's time	1
Before the Middle Ages	1
In the days of Robin Hood	1
In days of old	1
About 500 years ago	1
About 40 years ago	2
During the age of exploration	1
During early settlements in America	3
During American Revolution	1
After Napoleonic Wars	1
A number of years ago	1
After World War I	3
During World War II	1
Total	18

2. By centuries	
7th century	1
11th	3
12th	3
14th	1
15th	2
16th	6
17th	8
Total	24

3. Definite years	
1066	1
1189	1
1256	5
1266	1
1300	2
1353	1
1415	1
1503	1
1512	3
1820	1
1850	1
Total	18

INCORRECT SIGNER

Charlemagne	2
King Louis of France	2
William the Conqueror	2
Richard the Lion-Hearted	1
King Philip	1
King Henry	2
James I	3
The English people	2
President Wilson	1
President Hoover	1
President Roosevelt	1
Mr. Chamberlain	1
Mr. Churchill	1
Total	20

INCORRECT AUTHOR

The people	14
King John	7
The King's Court	1
Advisers of James I	1
Members of the English Government	2
Leaders of the United States	2
The English Parliament	1
Total	28

SOME FACTS NOT MENTIONED

1. No one knew that Archbishop Langton was the leader of the barons.
2. No one knew that the Mayor of London sided with the barons against the king.
3. No one knew that the Pope supported King John in his refusal to abide by the terms of Magna Charta, because the king had been coerced into signing it.

IF EVERY schoolboy ought to know the history of Magna Charta, it seems clear that it ought to be taught in some history course which would be required for all students. Since this is only one incident in English history, and many others are probably of equal importance, it may be argued that some parts of English history should be carefully selected for a course in world history, with attention to the background of United States history. Similarly some parts of European history should probably be included in such a course. If a half year could be used for teaching the background of United States history probably a second half year might well be used for recent history (1900 to date) including the other countries of North and South America and the Orient as well as Europe. Such a full-year of selected units of history, required of all students in the ninth or tenth grade, would aid us to understand the most significant parts of the background of United States history and the most critical events in the recent history of the modern world in which the United States must play its part as a nation.

A Semester's Project in Community Citizenship

Dayton Musselman

THE COURSE of study for the social studies in Indiana calls for one-half year of "Co-operative Citizenship" in the ninth year. A multiple-text adoption is in use, so the course varies in practice from a course in civics to a guidance course involving effective living in the home, school, and community. Bourbon Township Consolidated Schools, adopting the latter variant, used six units: (1) The Interdependence of Man, (2) Living Together in the Home, (3) School Citizenship, (4) Community Co-operation, (5) A Citizen and His Nation, and (6) Living in a World Community. Units Five and Six were given only such consideration as time would permit. Emphasis was given to co-operative living in our own communities.

This organization, although considered superior for local use because regular civics duplicated the eighth-grade work, had certain limitations. First, sitting in the classroom discussing community citizenship was like learning to operate a lathe by class discussion. Thinking without acting is conducive to the reverse, acting without thinking. Second, discussion and survey of specific community problems is seldom advisable because ninth graders are too unrestrained in their opinions, opinions which usually reflect the attitude of the home, and about which there may be sensitivity. Third, research and reading material, such as was available, was of too high a level for the ninth grade. The use of classroom movies was becoming more frequent, however, and the class library was slowly being built up. Fourth, short periods and a rigid class schedule placed severe time limits on excursions. Fifth, low initial class morale resulted from the fact that those who did not want vocational subjects had one alternative, Co-operative Citizenship.

This account of a ninth-grade project comes from a teacher in the Bourbon, Indiana, Township Consolidated Schools, now in military service.

A MINIATURE COMMUNITY

THIS feeling of inadequacy made the instructor amenable when early in the semester class discussion "jelled" around a different approach. The class began to build a miniature community. The community which grew in the next three months never had a plan, either from the standpoint of a pedagogue or a realtor. It met its problems as they came up, and was subject to arbitrary abandonment at any time. The classroom was small and contained no equipment other than the usual desks. The regular class period was fifty minutes and it was agreed that work on the project would be limited to that period of time.

With the friendly co-operation of the custodian a table was found and enlarged to approximately four by six feet. One of the boys brought a tub of fine wash sand considered valueless by the gravel company. The custodian provided a broom so the class could "police" the room each day, and supplied green sweeping compound for landscaping purposes. Quickly a rolling countryside was modeled with two blacktop roads, made from strips of tar paper, making an intersection thereon. Then came the first big problem and learning situation. How would the land be divided and ownership established?

The class recalled enough history to trace ownership from the Indians through the Spanish, French, and English periods to the establishment of the struggling United States. There began the study of Congressional townships and the method of surveying land for identification. It was decided that the instructor would be a realty firm and our quarter of a section of land a new development. The class became assistants in surveying that quarter section into smaller lots. Another group began to find out how deeds were written and recorded, and how abstracts were prepared. (Citizens, fathers, and mothers began to wonder why the boys and girls had so many questions as the members of the class endeavored to supplement book information.) In a short time most of

the land was "sold" and deeds delivered for each parcel. Each pupil owned land, some more than others, depending upon his ambition and plans.

Then came the building phase. It was agreed that this should consume as little time as possible. Some wooden models from toy sets appeared, but most of the buildings were from colored drawing paper. The art department provided paper and paste. As the buildings began to appear, the owners began to notice the lack of zoning. The banker had no lot suitably located in respect to other business establishments. So there began a series of transactions until a business section developed.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

THE need for a civil government brought about the second unified learning situation. How would justice be established and law and order maintained? The village was incorporated under Indiana laws with the name of MacArthur. A mayor and council were elected as provided for in the charter. The offices of constable, street commissioner, and judge were created. Two important legal cases came up during MacArthur's brief history. An irate home owner wished to sue the owner of a skating rink on an adjacent lot because the building extended onto her lot, and because the rink was a public nuisance. A group of public-spirited citizens began to develop plans for a school, but could not obtain the land they wished for it. A study was made of court procedure and one day allotted to each case. The juries made quite reasonable and realistic decisions.

Having disposed of those questions, the civil government became involved in tax problems. School costs and civil operating costs had to be figured in terms of the assessed value of the property. One citizen began to carry a petition to obtain a water system which further complicated the tax problem. A couple of wide awake citizens made a survey of possible grants-in-aid from the government. So MacArthur's tax troubles were taken care of and the community boasted a water tower with its name in big white letters.

ECONOMIC LIFE AND CIVIC NEEDS

IDEAS for civic improvement came so rapidly that the mayor appointed a committee to make a survey of the needs of MacArthur. When the committee and its subcommittees had finally been appointed, every member of the class was involved. The important subcommittees were studying commercial needs, recreational needs,

transportation problems, plans for beautifying the village, and methods of increasing MacArthur's war effort.

The committee on transportation failed to find much to report except that the streets were too narrow, for which it had no remedy. It also suggested that the street commissioner be stimulated to put up stop signs and traffic lights. Embarrassed by the publicity the official resigned.

The committee on recreational needs recommended a park and a library. The committee was of the opinion, however, that recreation in such a village was a matter to be left to individual and social-group initiative rather than the parks department and to commercial amusements. Oddly no mention was made of juvenile delinquency which was rapidly coming to the fore as a national problem at the time, and at no time in their consideration of law and order was a jail proposed. Strangely, also, this committee made the discovery that there were no churches in the community, and made some rather mature observations about their value to a community.

The committee of commercial needs had quite a report on the types of business firms needed more nearly to meet the living needs of the community. The point was very clearly made that if a community lacks a good shoe repairman, for instance, people will have to go to other communities for that service and will naturally do a little shopping for other items while there.

The committee on methods of beautifying MacArthur made some study of planned communities, but came to the conclusion that most communities grew like weeds, and improvements would have to be made within the limitations of current arrangements. They recommended a clean-up, paint-up week, and the planting of flowers and shrubbery. They concluded that the beauty of a community depended upon the amount of work expended by each home and not upon wealth. The importance of home ownership in improvement plans was mentioned. The fact that MacArthur had no slums was noted in passing, and a few homes were commended for beauty.

MacArthur had made no war effort because there seemed nothing practicable within the limits of the project. A carefully prepared list of ways in which such a village could and should help was submitted to the class. The last report coincided with the semester's end and terminated MacArthur's existence.

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The Campus Contacts the World

Sarah S. Cummings

THE OFT-REPEATED witticism that comments on a college lecture as something that "passes from the notebook of the professor to the notebook of the student without going through the mind of either" has stimulated thought in one teachers college that has led to changes in procedures.

For a great many years we wallowed through history theses at the end of the semester when we had a minimum of time for careful reading and almost no time at all for individual discussion. To be sure, there were always some theses that indicated real interest in investigation over a reasonable period of time, and careful workmanship, but there were too many which showed that they had been hastily scrambled together at the last moment, often from poorly chosen sources. We usually found lack of compelling interest and a feeling of pressure from "too many term papers and projects," rather than inability, to be the cause of poor work.

Stocktaking left us generally dissatisfied with the way our work was functioning in the lives of our students in the present and with more than a little doubt of its enduring values. What could be done about it in a set-up where administrative and professional requirements have to be met on more or less traditional lines?

CLASSES were taken into our confidence and after some discussion we decided that those who wished might continue the research necessary to produce the traditional thesis but that those who preferred might pursue a different line of investigation. We evolved a point system whereby those who wished might substitute for a thesis the reading of current non-fiction books, listening to Town Hall or other similar one-hour radio programs, seeing historical plays, visiting

all sorts of museums, visiting industrial establishments, attending lectures, forums, etc. In short, we could earn our credits by enjoying any constructive activities for which our class work on College Hill formed a background.

After more deliberation we decided that seven "experiences" averaging one in two weeks and on which a minimum of one hour should be spent would be a satisfactory substitute for the work involved in a thesis since the activities so far as possible were to be varied, cost considerable time, and sometimes money.

No specific activity is ever required. Some of the students have little money to spend and can go only rarely to a large city center. The instructor understands and accepts the limitations of such students but prescribes a rich diet for those who can find carfare or even an occasional admission fee. Most students manage to get a variety of experiences. Many excellent opportunities cost nothing at all.

It should be noted here that we did not evolve a new idea. We have always had class field trips. We have watched the stimulus given by class trips taken under the sponsorship of other departments. We have merely increased the contacts possible for students in the history department by permitting them to be made individually and in small groups as convenience or interest permits, providing the necessary time by omitting the thesis.

For our methods classes in the social studies we have particularly encouraged trips to professional or semi-professional conferences whenever they have been open to the public. Meetings of the New England Association of Social Studies Teachers, the Visual Aid Conferences held annually at Boston University, and the Pan-American Association yearly conferences at Simmons College are all familiar ground to many of the students in our classes. We feel that young teachers have much to cope with and will be more likely to avail themselves of civic, cultural, and professional opportunities if, as undergraduates, they learn their way around and see the interest displayed by those who have advanced professionally.

The head of the history department in the Framingham, Massachusetts, State Teachers College describes the use of direct experience as a substitute for theses.

WE WERE all quick to agree that the off-campus contacts themselves were more important than the subsequent reports. We tried out many ways of reporting. Class reports took far too much time and are used very sparingly. Individual oral reports inspired both student and instructor but also exhausted the latter. We finally evolved a plan by which, immediately after a "credit experience" the student writes a brief chatty letter to the instructor that rarely proves to be dull reading. Often she reacts with a brief note of comment, suggestion, or word of appreciation which establishes an intimacy between instructor and student.

We have tried to evaluate our experiment as critically as we have our term papers, which, by the way, are now almost at the irreducible minimum. There are some negative factors. Some girls with small allowances or none at all are wistful of experiences others can have. We explain that we ourselves have often eaten hamburg because we could not afford sirloin and that we are all benefited somewhat by learning about opportunities which can be enjoyed later. Such girls are few, because so many lectures, forums,

and museums are to be enjoyed for the price of carfare. There is an occasional girl who makes a chore of "getting credits." Usually such girls can be stimulated or reoriented by conference with the instructor.

The positive values are many. Students are enthusiastic and their letters often sound as if they themselves had been the first to discover the treasure houses they visit. Appreciation for cultural opportunities has grown greatly. We tell students about such organizations as offer junior memberships. That our students enjoy association with worth-while groups is indicated by one year's memberships: thirty junior members in the Twentieth Century Club, twenty-five in the Foreign Policy Association, and five in the Pan-American Association of Massachusetts.

Lastly thesis writing, though it has very real values, is not generally found to be habit forming. We have found that reading non-fiction, attending lectures, and visiting museums is inclined to form a pattern for later use of leisure time. We are gratified to see more of our old students than formerly when we ourselves attend the places we recommend.

(Continued from page 364)

EVALUATION

SOON after MacArthur began to develop, the six weeks grading period came around. The instructor had enough information available for grades by the traditional methods. He pointed out, however, that there probably would not be such information at the next grading period, so some method would have to be devised for grades. Since the final test of citizenship is conduct, the class decided to grade themselves as citizens of MacArthur. From time to time a considerable portion of the class time was devoted to thinking through criteria for good citizenship. At the end of the six weeks a score card of citizenship was placed on the board to guide the grading. A mimeographed copy of the class roll was given each student, and each member graded every member, including himself. Final tabulation revealed a topheavy distribution of A grades. Approximately thirty per cent were B's and twenty-five per cent were C's. There were no D's or F's. The outstanding good citizen was a girl who averaged D's in regular subject matter, and rarely made C's. At the end of the last grading period the curve of distribution was even more heavily weighed with A's.

No attempt has been made to evaluate this project. There were many minor developments in the growth of the project that cannot be chronicled, and there were several learning situations which had to be avoided because of time. In using such a project in the future, a time table of activities should be set up so films could be ordered and more efficiently integrated.

Those who early scoffed at the project as juvenile remained to study its ramifications. Several other classes visited to study MacArthur's growth. It was an attempt to achieve participation and action with a whole community perspective. It required not only information and understanding, but also responsibility and constructive action. Elusive is the learning situation which allows the individual to experience the psychological comfort of combining his welfare and progress with the welfare and progress of a community, his community.

Two results of the project cannot be denied. The class developed a group consciousness such as is seldom seen in a large high school class, and the instructor spent more time in keeping ahead of the project than on all the remainder of his program.

Notes and News

NCSS-AHA December Meeting

The joint meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies with the American Historical Association will be held at the Hotel Stevens in Chicago on December 28. Andrew W. Cordier of Manchester College is serving as program chairman of this joint session. The program for this meeting is as follows:

Chairman: Andrew W. Cordier, Manchester College

Address: The Role of Patriotism in American Life, Merle Curti, University of Wisconsin

Panel Discussion: Jacob C. Meyer, Western Reserve University; Burr W. Phillips, University of Wisconsin; Harrison J. Thornton, University of Iowa. (A.W.C.)

Middle States Council

The Middle States Council for the Social Studies will hold its annual meeting at Columbia University on Friday and Saturday, December 8 and 9. The Friday afternoon session will be devoted to special problems in the teaching of American history and world history, including the facing of time limitations, special adaptations for poor readers, and for vocational schools, and visual resources. The Saturday morning program will be concerned with attention to Latin America and the Far East in the social studies program. Elementary sections will meet both days.

Connecticut

Social Studies Topics, edited by Ruth Andersen for the Connecticut Social Studies Teachers' Association, continues to present suggestions for classroom procedures and materials and news items concerning Connecticut, New England, and the National Council. Two meetings of the Association were held in late October. That at Hartford discussed "Redirection in History and Social Studies"; that at New Haven, "Problems in Intercultural Education" and "Visual Aids."

Long Island

The Long Island Social Studies Council held its first dinner meeting of the year at Hempstead on October 19. The guest speaker was William

McDonald, Executive Assistant of the Research Institute of America, Inc. At the December meeting the speakers will be the State supervisors of social studies in secondary and elementary education. Mildred McChesney will discuss changes and tests in the secondary program, and a representative of the elementary division will discuss the co-ordinating of the twelve-year program.

The officers of the Council for 1944-45 are Gertrude Wetterauer, Hicksville, president; Randal C. Powell, Malverne, vice-president; Cornelia Doedeys, Mineola, secretary; and Mrs. E. J. Wanser, Oyster Bay, treasurer. (F.A.G.)

Minnesota

The Minnesota Council for the Social Studies met in conjunction with the Minnesota Education Association at its annual meeting in St. Paul, October 26-27. At a section meeting devoted to "Problems in the Social Studies" the speakers were Walter E. Myer of the Civic Education Service, Edgar B. Wesley of the University of Minnesota, and Joseph Kise of Moorhead State Teachers College. Another section meeting dealt with "Education toward Democracy as a Way of Life." Joseph Kise presided and speakers were Governor Edward J. Thye, Congressman Walter H. Judd, Walter E. Myer, and Mordecai Johnson, President of Howard University. (E.A.H.)

New England

The fall meeting of the New England Association of Social Studies Teachers will be held in Boston on December 9. The general topic for consideration is the Far East. At the morning session Frederick K. Morris of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology will give an illustrated lecture on "The Geography of the Far East." A luncheon meeting will be followed by a discussion by G. Nye Steiger of Simmons College on "Political Factors and Forces in the Far East."

The April issue of the *New England Social Studies Bulletin*, edited by Victor E. Pitkin, includes "Can We Duck the Labor Issue," by Harold U. Faulkner of Smith College; "The Position of Negro Labor in New England," by Julian D. Steele; "Teaching Materials on Labor Problems," by Mildred P. Ellis; "Freedom of Speech

in the Classroom," by Mabel B. Casner; and "Second Grade Citizens in Wartime," by Mary A. O. Rourke.

The September number includes "Peace-Making, Yesterday and Today," by Ruhl J. Bartlett, Tufts College; "Education for Public Service in School," by Carl J. Friedrich, Harvard University; and "The Social Studies and the Fine Arts," by William Germain Dooley, Boston Museum of Fine Arts.

New Jersey

The New Jersey Association of Teachers of Social Studies held a meeting on November 10 in conjunction with the New Jersey Educational Association. Louis J. Alber of Cleveland, Ohio, spoke on "Hitler and the Junkers." (E.M.B.)

New York City

The *ATSS Bulletin* for October reviews recent and current activities of the Association of Teachers of Social Studies, reporting projects relating to intercultural education and reaffirming principles of academic freedom.

Rhode Island

The Rhode Island Social Studies Association held its fall meeting in Providence on October 27. R. Franklin Weller, Director of the Rhode Island Seminar on Human Relationships, spoke on "Intercultural Education."

The Rhode Island Social Studies Association has joined in a co-operative effort known as "The Rhode Island Local Studies Project." Its purpose is to gather state and local material useful in history, civics, and geography courses. Local committees have been set up to study particular sections and towns in the state. (C.O.C.)

Westchester

Mrs. Harriet Richardson of the Gorton High School presided at a meeting of the Westchester County Social Studies Teachers Association on October 27 in the Museum of Modern Art. The meeting was devoted to a demonstration of audio-visual teaching aids. Two films of the Forum Edition of the "March of Time" were presented: *Canada* and *American's All*. Three sets of recordings, all dealing with liberty, were loaned to the group by New York University's Film Library, Recordings Division. These were: *Freedom of the Press*, *John Locke*, and *I'm an American*. (J.P.)

Wisconsin

The Wisconsin Council for the Social Studies held its annual session with the History Section of the Wisconsin Education Association at the state convention in Milwaukee, November 3. J. Martin Klotsche of Milwaukee State Teachers College and President of the Wisconsin Council, arranged a program dealing with the Far East. Speakers were W. T. Chan, Department of Chinese Culture, Dartmouth College, and Meribeth Cameron, Dean of Milwaukee Downer College. A luncheon preceded this afternoon session. (E.H.E.)

International Education

Education for a Free Society is the title of the Hood College Report of the International Education Assembly. Printed copies of this report may be obtained free of charge from the office of the Liaison Committee for International Education, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6. Those desiring copies of the earlier Harper's Ferry Report, mailed to all members of the National Council last year, may still obtain them.

Review of Educational Research

"Education for Work and for Citizenship," volume XIV, no. 4, of the *Review of Educational Research*, October, 1944, contains references to many studies of interest to social studies teachers. This volume was prepared by the Committee on Education for Work and Citizenship, Howard R. Anderson, chairman. Single copies are priced at one dollar and may be ordered from the American Educational Research Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6.

American Citizenship

Education for Victory, October 20, publishes the script of a discussion of "Education for American Citizenship" conducted on the "Pursuit of Learning" program of the NBC "University of the Air." The participants were Representative Brookes Hays of Arkansas, Merrill F. Hartshorn of the National Council for the Social Studies, Mrs. Arthur Hays Sulzberger of the *New York Times*, and William T. Spanton, Chief of the Agricultural Education Service of the U. S. Office of Education. The discussion ranged over the teaching of American history, teacher salaries, the practice of citizenship, the role of social studies other than history, and citizenship in the general school program.

The Immigration and Naturalization Service of the Department of Justice has published a *Federal Textbook on Citizenship*, on the Constitution and federal government (Government Printing Office, 1944). It has also issued (1) *The Business of Our Government*, in three books, graded according to vocabulary; (2) *The Business of Our Government—Teacher's Edition*; (3) *Laws for the Nation*, in three books, graded according to vocabulary; and (4) *Laws for the Nation—Teacher's Edition*. The four latter items are available for 10 cents each (free to teachers of citizenship classes conducted under the supervision of public schools) from the Immigration and Naturalization Service, Philadelphia 2.

Returning Veterans

The October number of *The Journal of Educational Sociology* is concerned with returning veterans. General F. T. Hines contributes "Education and Rehabilitation of Returning Veterans"; Howard L. Bevis, "College and the Demobilized Student"; Vierling Kersey, "City Schools Face Problems of Postwar Education"; and Colonel Paul T. Griffith, "Selective Service and the Returning Veteran."

UNRRA

Recent publications concerning the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration include "What the United Nations Relief Program Means to You; Twenty Questions, Analysis and Explanations," by William Allan Neilson and Raymond Gram Swing (10 pages. Food for Freedom, Inc., 1707 H Street, N.W., Washington 6. 5 cents); *UNRRA: Gateway to Recovery* (84 pages. Planning Pamphlets No. 30-31, National Planning Association, 800 Twenty-first Street, N.W., Washington 6. 50 cents); and "Helping the People to Help Themselves," the story of UNRRA (15 pages. United Nations Information Office, 610 Fifth Avenue, New York. 10 cents).

The 140-page official Report of the Director General of UNRRA which covers the first eight months of UNRRA's development is available free on request. In addition there has been prepared a 32-page pamphlet which contains simple factual statements regarding UNRRA's organization, aims, and progress. These may be obtained by writing UNRRA, 1344 Connecticut Avenue, N.W., Washington 25, and stating your professional interest and institutional affiliation.

On Current Affairs

The *Foreign Policy Reports*, issued twice a month by the Foreign Policy Association, Inc. (22 East 38th Street, New York 16. 25 cents a copy; \$5.00 a year) continue to provide very valuable background material for study of current events. For example, the June 1 issue publishes "Breaking Up the Japanese Empire," by Laurence K. Rosinger; the July 15 issue, "Struggle for a New France," by Winifred N. Hadsel; August 1, "U. S. Foreign Trade and World Economy"; October 15, "Role of Cartels in Modern Economy"; and November 15, "Turkey Between Two Wars."

The *Public Policy Digest*, published monthly except for July and August by the National Planning Association (800 Twenty-first Street, N.W., Washington 6. 25 cents a copy) summarizes many reports and publications on current and post-war economic, social, and political topics. The reports should be valuable to teachers of current events and modern problems.

The *Monthly Labor Review*, issued by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the U. S. Department of Labor (Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25. 30 cents a copy; \$3.50 a year) includes articles and statistics dealing with a wide range of topics relating to labor in the United States and abroad: wartime policies, post-war plans, veterans, social security, co-operatives, strikes, etc.

Peacetime Conscription

In the *Journal* of the National Education Association for November, Walter E. Myer of the Civic Education Service presents both "The Case for Peacetime Conscription" and "The Case Against Peacetime Conscription." The prospect of disorder and even revolution; the need for preparedness in case of emergency; the contribution that military training can make to health; the vocational value of military training and the subtraction each year of a million men from the labor market; disciplinary value; democratization; and reduction of prospects for another war are advanced as arguments for compulsory training.

Against military training Mr. Myer argues that our post-war military needs are still unknown; that we will have several million men trained in this war; that militarism should not be encouraged; that we need a large navy, a highly trained air force, and a small professional army rather than millions of partially trained men; that the

physical-training program is necessarily inadequate and will not reach those who need it most—"what we need is a comprehensive national health program"; that neither the physical or vocational programs will help girls; that a year in military service is no real solution to the full-employment problem; that military discipline is no substitute or remedy for "civic discipline"; that national rather than more narrowly military service is needed; and that compulsory military training is militaristic and makes for war.

Further discussion of the conscription issue is provided in *Shall We Have Another Lost Generation* (College of Education, Ohio State University. 25 copies for \$1), and in *Conscription* (Post-war World Council, 112 East 19th Street, New York. 10 cents).

The *School Review* for October discusses the *Fortune* survey of public opinion about conscription, which found 69.1 per cent in favor, 21.1 per cent opposed, and 9.8 per cent undecided.

The American Council on Education will publish this month a history of conscription prepared by George Fort Milton.

On Geography

A 17-page mimeographed *Bibliography of Free and Inexpensive Geography Teaching Material*, edited by J. Granville Jensen, has been issued by the Rhode Island College of Education, Providence, at 25 cents a copy. Prepared by a group of teachers during summer session, the list provides addresses and brief annotations on a wide range of topics, mostly current, relating to geography.

In the October number of *Progressive Education*, Alfred H. Meyer of Valparaiso University discusses "For Our Air Age . . . A Functional Geographic Education." He sets forth the current need for geography, attacks some misconceptions about the organization and teaching of the subject in schools, and sets up standards of time allotment and teacher training needed for meeting needs now recognized.

The *Geography-Science Bulletin*, edited by J. Granville Jensen and John Gammons Read, published monthly by the Rhode Island College of Education, Providence, devoted six pages of its May-June issue to Japan and five pages of its October issue to the post-war settlement. In addition the *Bulletin* publishes shorter statements, reviews recent publications, and calls attention to free and inexpensive materials. It is published for teachers and is available on request.

New Contributing Members

Since the names were last listed in the April issue of *Social Education*, many additional names have been added to the role of Contributing Members of the National Council. These members have paid \$5 for their annual dues instead of the \$3 subscribing membership fee, although there is no difference in the privileges of such membership. The extra financial assistance is of great value to the Council in carrying out its program under wartime conditions. Following are the new Contributing Members: Roy A. Price, Richard J. Stanley, Daphne Gallagher, Corinne Anderson, Mary G. Kelty, Nelle E. Bowman, Frank J. Smith, Wilbur F. Murra, William B. Thomas, Mary C. Ronalder, Stanley E. Diamond, Howard R. Anderson, Marie E. Geilen, Lelah Hess, Walter E. Myer, Robert E. Keohane, Howard White, Sara Hartzler, Ethel Jane Powell, Louise Stern, Anna L. Hull, Gladys Parshall, Cloyd W. Paskins, Marian N. Race, Grace Ewy, Julia Emery, Irene A. Burkowske, Ruth West, Viola E. Peterson, L. G. Griffin, Joseph A. Harwood, Edwin M. Barton, William E. Young, Elmira R. Lucke, Mae Drescher, Andrew Petor, Jr., Helen N. Fields, Robena Pringle, Elmer Ellis, George Hodgkins, Ingeborg Highland, Harold Korey, Allen Y. King, Bess Hedges, Howard A. Overmiller, C. K. Cummings, Jr., Angie Wilson, James E. Blakemore, Robert H. Mitchell, Elsie M. Chell, Linnie Danner, Louis A. March, R. W. Cordier, Helen I. Nichols, Laura E. Wadsworth, Charlotte M. Lord, Rexie E. Bennett, H. K. Yerkes, Meribah Clark, Burr W. Phillips, Clifton B. Worthen, Mary B. Byrd, Mildred McChesney, P. A. Knowlton, Lelia Vogts, Horace T. Morse, Elizabeth B. Carey, A. W. Troelstrup, Eunice Johns, C. C. Barnes, Margaret Steiner, I. R. DePencier, Herbert Cole, Queenie Bilbo, Stanley E. Geise, William A. Hamm, Mary A. Burns, Anne F. Graber, Mrs. Rudolf Frolik, and Sarah Esther Jones.

Helpful Articles

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are invited to send in material for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your school or organization and other items of general interest to social studies teachers. Mail your material as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington. Contributors to this issue include: Andrew W. Cordier, Ella A. Hawkinson, Edwin M. Barton, Catherine O. Connors, Jennie Pingrey, E. H. Evans.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Leonard B. Irwin

Domestic Issues

The popularity of public-opinion polls is constantly growing. People find it both exciting and useful to know what other people think about all sorts of things, and politicians, business men, and many others are coming to consult the polls with the same hopefulness and eagerness that astrologers received a few centuries ago. Public-opinion polls undoubtedly can play a useful part in the classroom. Handy material of this sort is constantly issued by the National Opinion Research Center (University of Denver, Denver 10). Two recent reports from this institution are *The Public Looks at Politics and Politicians* and *The Public Looks at Education* (25 cents each). Each of these reports the attitude of the public toward conditions in these fields. Special interest is provided by typical comments of the persons interviewed, in addition to the statistics.

The American Way: Business Freedom or Government Control? by Maxwell S. Stewart (Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, 10 cents) provides in 32 pages an excellent discussion in elementary terms of the issue stated in the title. The historical growth of government controls is described, and the point is emphasized that many controls have been undertaken to protect the many against the few. Complete freedom is desirable in such fields as religion, entertainment, and science while, on the other hand, complete government controls are necessary in other fields like education, police protection, and military affairs. In most matters, extremes must be avoided and a middle line found which will benefit society in general. "It is the use of government controls rather than the existence of controls that constitutes what may be regarded as America's No. 1 Problem for the postwar years." The pamphlet has a number of attractive pictographs.

An important contribution to serious study of social welfare problems is *Joint Statement on Social Security by Agriculture, Business and Labor* (National Planning Association, 800 Twenty-First Street, N.W., Washington 6, 25 cents). It was prepared by a joint committee of the NPA and provides a series of specific recommendations

for income maintenance, employment, and health services. The discussion is not technical and is worthy of close study and consideration.

One of the most poorly paid of labor groups in this country is the cotton textile workers. Their plight, together with that of the sharecroppers, constitutes one of our greatest economic problems. It is the subject of an interesting and forceful booklet, *Half a Million Forgotten People* (Textile Workers Union of America, CIO, 15 Union Square, New York 3, Free). Amply illustrated by photographs and charts, this pamphlet makes a strong plea for public thought and aid for an unfortunate class of citizens.

The British Empire

The British Commonwealth: An Experiment in National Self-Government and International Co-operation, by Frederick George Marcham (Cornell University Press, Ithaca, New York, 40 cents) is the fifth booklet in the "Cornell University Curriculum Series in World History." In conformity with the general plan of the series, it is projected as a teaching aid for high school teachers. It provides an interpretative analysis, or historical summary, of the development of the Commonwealth, so arranged as to suggest lines of emphasis for class discussion. There are also excellent sets of questions, an annotated reading list, and pupil activities.

The British Information Services have recently published several attractive booklets which may be obtained on request (30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20). *Britain's Sea Power* is a description of the importance of naval superiority in general and in this war in particular. It is illustrated by many diagrams of ships and excellent photographs. *African Victory with the British Forces from El Alamein to Cape Bon* is a very readable and profusely illustrated account of the decisive North African campaign—a vividly told page of history. *Five Years of War* is a brief pictorial summary of British military activity in the war. *Introducing West Africa* should be a valuable and popular addition to a geography classroom library. It is a pamphlet of 85 pages,

describing this unfamiliar part of the world in its many interesting aspects; economic and social conditions, education, religion, and the war are some of the subjects presented in simple language and with a wealth of maps, photographs, and charts. *Fifty Facts about the Middle East* is a little booklet providing information about British development in that important area.

Post-War Problems and Planning

The National Opinion Research Center, referred to above, has an important report on a poll entitled *The Public Looks at World Organization* (25 cents). Its findings indicate that over 70 per cent of Americans favor our participation in some kind of world organization, and an international police force. However, only about half the people appear to believe that a world union will have a good chance of preventing future wars. The report covers a wide variety of questions and includes sample comments and reactions.

World Peace—How? (Youthbuilders, Inc., 120 East 16th Street, New York 3. Free) is a booklet written as a co-operative project by the members of the History Club of Stuyvesant High School, New York City. It is a stimulating example of education in action. It condemns isolationism and summarizes the most widely-discussed projects for world organization. Perhaps the most valuable section for other high school pupils to read will be the concluding list of suggestions about what youth can do.

Causes, Costs and Consequences of War, by Dr. Joseph Kise (Melberg Press, Moorhead, Minnesota, 20 cents) is a 26-page pamphlet for class use. It summarizes briefly the causes and cost of war and provides questions for further discussion.

Uniting the Nations, by Herbert F. Rudd (General Extension Service, University of New Hampshire, Durham, 5 cents) suggests a definite answer to one of the crucial problems of post-war world organization—that of representation. Mr. Rudd proposes a system of balanced representation based on four criteria for each nation: population, foreign trade, industrialization, and public welfare as measured by the literate population and the death rate. He would further limit the voting power of any nation to 10 per cent of the total in the world congress. The author's analysis of his plan is interesting and should be worthy of study and discussion.

International Safeguard of Human Rights (Commission to Study the Organization of Peace,

8 West 40th Street, New York 18. Free) is the final section of a report reviewed in a previous issue. It discusses practical measures which should be taken to protect civil rights and minority groups under any international program. It recommends a United Nations conference to draw up an International Bill of Rights and establish a permanent commission to carry on the task of securing the rights of the individual.

The same organization has issued a mimeographed pamphlet entitled *The United States and Postwar International Organization*, which should be a useful reference for study groups or class discussion. It consists of the platforms or statements of policy of sixteen national organizations on the subject of world union. Among the groups represented are the American Legion, the United States Chamber of Commerce, the AFL and CIO, and the National League of Women Voters. A statement of policy by the Department of State is added.

Food: A World Problem, by Frank Ernest Hill (Educational Film Library Association, Inc., 45 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20. 50 cents) is prepared primarily as a study guide for the British film "World of Plenty." However, it is a useful statement of the subject in its own right and may well be used by discussion groups without the film. It considers five fundamental topics: what food is needed; whether enough can be grown to feed all mankind adequately; what the war has taught us about food; how America can solve her own food problems; and what America should do about the world food problem. The summary of each problem is accompanied by questions, a list of pertinent facts and authoritative opinions, and a reading list.

Civic Training

Youth Learns to Assume Responsibility (Michigan Study of the Secondary School Curriculum, State Board of Education, Lansing, 25 cents) is the third pamphlet in a series called "Leads to Better Secondary Schools in Michigan." Earlier ones were: *Follow-Up of Secondary School Students* and *Local Pre-School Conference*. This pamphlet of over 100 pages has a great deal of valuable material dealing with youth-training. It describes chiefly the specific techniques which some fifty teachers have used in developing a sense of civic and personal responsibility in their pupils. The discussion is interesting and stimulating and should have special meaning to teachers of citizenship classes.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Radio Notes

Handbooks for the NBC "University of the Air" historical series, "We Came This Way," (Fridays, 11:30-12:00 midnight, EWT) are now available from Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27. The handbook contains material covering the first 20 broadcasts. The chapters of the handbook follow the order of the broadcasts. Each chapter amplifies the materials presented in the programs and serves as a valuable permanent record of the course. Bibliographies of selected readings are also provided. Each broadcast in this dramatized series features an outstanding figure in the world's history against the background of his times. The handbook sells for 25 cents per copy.

The Woodrow Wilson Foundation, 8 West 40th Street, New York 18, announces a radio series of 13 broadcasts, electrically transcribed, entitled "How Can We Make the Victory Stick?" These programs will be carried over local stations throughout the country. Consult your local newspapers for time and station or get in touch with the Foundation at the address above.

According to plans recently announced by Niles Trammell, president of NBC, a network of television stations will cover practically the entire United States by 1950. This network will not spring up overnight, but will proceed as an orderly, logical development. The present schedule calls for a New York to Washington network to be completed in 1945. In the following year this network will be expanded into the midwest and a transcontinental route will be completed shortly thereafter.

Columbia Broadcasting Company's "American School of the Air" programs are now being used in nearly 400 general and station hospitals operated by the Army. "School of the Air" programs are: Mondays, "Science Frontiers"; Tuesdays, "Gateway to Music"; Wednesdays, "New Horizons" (geography); Thursdays, "Tales From Far and Near"; Fridays, "This Living World" (analysis of current events).

Make Youth Discussion Conscious is the title of a handbook for school forums and class dis-

cussions with suggestions for adapting radio forum techniques to discussion by youth. Single copies are free from the Junior Town Meeting League, 400 South Front Street, Columbus 15, Ohio.

Each Saturday from 6:00 to 6:15 P.M., EWT, the Blue Network presents Edward Tomlinson in a report on Latin America. These broadcasts include the latest hemispheric headlines, a discussion of the background and facts behind the news, and a geographic picture or story of some city, community, or section mentioned in the news.

The newest *Junior Town Meeting of the Air* got under way in October at Pittsburgh. Thirty-six programs, featuring discussions by high school students, have been planned by R. O. Hughes, director of citizenship and social studies. Mr. Hughes will serve as moderator for this series. The programs are broadcast over WWSW every Tuesday at 1:00-1:30, P.M., EWT.

The *March of Time* is now heard over the Blue Network each Thursday evening from 10:30-11:00, P.M., EWT.

Motion Picture News

For many years now the standard and best general guide to available educational motion pictures has been the *Educational Film Catalog*, published by the H. W. Wilson Co., 950 University Avenue, New York 52. The plan for this catalog has recently been revised. Formerly a quarterly, it is now published monthly from September to May inclusive, with every other month's issue being cumulative. The final issue of the year contains a complete listing of films for the period covered. This catalog includes all types of educational films and the more important films are annotated.

The twelfth catalog of Walter O. Gutlohn Inc., 25 West 45th Street, New York 19, listing 16-mm. silent and sound films has recently reached our desk. It is an extremely complete history of educational and entertainment films.

The Educational Film Library Association in its annual report estimates that the number of

16-mm. films now available for educational use is well over 10,000. The problem confronting the teacher who must choose the films best suited to his purpose is enormous. EFLA estimates that less than 2,000 of the available films would be approved for purchase by previewing committees of educational institutions.

Recent 16-mm. Films

Automotive Council For War Production, New Center Bldg., Detroit 2.

The Aftermath of War Production. 17 minutes, sound; loan. Deals realistically with the problem of the disposal of surplus war material.

Brandon Films Inc., 1600 Broadway, New York.

A Man and His Job. 20 minutes, sound; rental, apply. A release of the National Film Board of Canada showing steps taken toward economic security.

The People's Bank. 20 minutes, sound; rental, apply. Describes the growth of credit unions in Canada.

Castle Films Inc., 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York.

News Parade of the Year—1944. 10 minutes, silent or sound; sale, silent, \$8.75, sound, \$17.50. Review of the year's outstanding events.

Encyclopaedia Britannica Films Inc., 1841 Broadway, New York 23.

Central America—Caribbean Region II. 11 minutes, sound; sale, \$45. Economic and political history of Western Caribbean area.

Pre-Induction Training Officer, Service Command Headquarters. (Apply at headquarters nearest to you.)

Introduction to the Army. 40 minutes, sound; loan. What happens to an army inductee from the time he receives his "Greetings" from the President until he completes his basic training.

New Zealand Legation, 19 Observatory Circle, N.W., Washington.

Coal from New Zealand Alps. 10 minutes, sound; loan. Life and work of New Zealand's coal miners.

Maps and Atlases

Friendship Press, 156 Fifth Avenue, New York 10, publishes *This is the Indian*, a large pamphlet by Earle F. Dexter with numerous illustrations and a map locating the chief Indian tribes of the United States and Alaska. Price 25 cents. A decorative wall map in seven colors on the "Indians of the U.S.A." is also 25 cents.

A four-color map of the life of Mark Twain may be had free from the Educational Bureau, Warner Bros., 321 West 44th Street, New York 18.

A wall map showing the "Air Lines of the United States" is sent free to teachers by United Air Lines, 23 East Monroe Street, Chicago.

An attractive catalog entitled "Visual Aids . . .

to Learning and Teaching" has just been published by A. J. Nystrom and Co., 3333 Elston Avenue, Chicago 18. A number of new maps and globes are listed.

A good, inexpensive atlas for pupil use has been put on the market by C. S. Hammond and Co., 88 Lexington Avenue, New York 16. Called a *Comparative World Atlas*, this 48-page edition contains separate physical and political maps displayed side by side so that the pupil may compare the world as man found it with the world as man has changed it. Many of the maps are in color, and the generous size of the atlas (9¼x12¼) makes the maps clearly readable. The atlas retails at 35 cents for a single copy, 30 cents each for 2 to 25 copies, or 25 cents each for 25 to 100 copies.

Kodachromes

The Kime Kolor Pictures, 1823 Morada Place, Altadena, California, are now selling a series of 500 excellent views of the United States, Canada, and Hawaii in 2 x 2 color slides. The slides retail at 50 cents each.

A series of Kodachrome slides representing various aspects of the life and culture of the other American republics is being prepared by the American Council on Education in co-operation with the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs. The slides are for use in the high schools of the United States. The Council is at present gathering data concerning possible source of such visual material. Anyone having Kodachrome slides or suggestions pertinent to this project is asked by the Council to write to Kodachrome Slide Project, American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6.

Just released is a series of 12 Kodachrome slides of "Father Hubbard's Alaskan Expeditions." The set costs \$5.85 in a self-viewing panel, from Western Movie Supply Co., 28 Geary Street, San Francisco 8.

Pictures and Posters

A "United Nations Education Kit" containing a study guide; 15 copies of a monograph descriptive of each of the United Nations; 15 copies of a booklet which describes achievements and prospects of the United Nations; and 23 poster-charts of pictures and comments about the United Nations, may be ordered from United Nations Information Office, 610 Fifth Avenue, New York 20. Price of the complete kit is \$3.50.

The Division of Inter-American Educational

Relations, U. S. Office of Education, Washington 25, is constantly adding to the "Loan Packets on Inter-American Friendships and Understanding." Packets are available on such topics as "Inter-American Relations," "Art of the Other Americas," "Plays, Pageants and Programs," "The Americas and the War." Each packet contains pamphlets, maps, posters, pictures, and similar material. One packet, which may be kept for two weeks, may be ordered at one time. The return postage must be paid by the borrower.

Building America, the picture magazine for schools, has announced eight study units to be published during 1944-1945. The topics to be covered in these units are: "Lend Lease," "Congress," "Home Life: American and Foreign," "Veterans," "Light Metals," "Chemurgy," "Our Water Resources," and "Russia." *Building America* is issued monthly, October through May, by Americana Corporation, 2 West 45th Street, New York 19. Sets of the 8 units are \$2.25 each set. Single copies are 30 cents.

"How the Flying Machine Was Made a Fighting Machine," is the title of a picture poster $11\frac{3}{4} \times 15\frac{1}{4}$ given free to teachers by School Service, Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Co., 306 Fourth Avenue, Pittsburgh 30.

A picture chart entitled "How du Pont Rayon is Made," size 35×23 , with yarn samples attached, is obtainable free from Rayon Division, E. I. du Pont de Nemours & Co., 350 Fifth Avenue, New York 1.

General Motors Corporation, Department of Public Relations, Detroit 2, will send interested teachers a wall chart picturing the development of jeeps, trucks, tanks, and airplanes.

The Association of American Railroads, Transportation Bldg., Washington, has a series of five new posters on the railroad's part in the war effort which they will send free.

A classroom hanger in color called "Shoes Through the Ages" and a booklet on the *Romance of Shoes* is yours for the asking from Roberts, Johnson and Rand, St. Louis 3, Missouri.

A complete list of materials to be used in the teaching of *Recreation* is available from New Jersey State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, New Jersey. Included are sources of charts, exhibits, records, transcriptions, and films. Price, \$1.00.

Apparatus

Opaque projectors which project charts, photographs, diagrams, or the printed page have long

been one of the fundamental aids to learning in our schools. For several years it has been almost impossible to obtain one of these projectors because of the demands of the armed forces which found them invaluable in the training of men for war. Many of these projectors have now been released for school use. For further information write to the Spencer Lens Co., Buffalo, New York, or Bausch and Lomb, Rochester, New York.

Charts

Don Smith, author of *Peculiarities of the Presidents*, has prepared a series of 15 charts that tell at a glance the important, authentic facts about each president—Washington through Roosevelt. These charts outline such facts as "Birthplaces of the Presidents," "Religions of the Presidents," "Nicknames of the Presidents," "Ages of the Presidents at Inauguration," "Colleges Attended by the Presidents," and the like. From a glance at these charts we learn that Virginia has given us one fourth of our presidents; Harvard graduated four; more belonged to the Episcopal Church than any other denomination; 16 Presidents saw military service; the average age at death of the first six Presidents was 80 years, while the average age at death of the last six was 63 years. The 15 charts complete with a copy of the book, *Peculiarities of the Presidents*, cost \$17.00 from Don Smith, Van Wert, Ohio.

Helpful Articles

- Elliott, Godfrey M. "Some Implications of the AAF Film-strip Program," *Educational Screen*, XXIII:342-343, October, 1944. Evidence from war training centers of a larger role for still-picture projection in the post-war classroom.
- Feuerstein, Emma. "Making Your Community History Live," *The Grade Teacher*, LXII:58, 83, November, 1944. A bus trip to points of historic interest.
- Gernant, Leonard. "The Personal Interview as a Method of Utilizing Community Resources," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXX:415-423, October, 1944. Outlines a plan by which students may learn more about vocational opportunities by interviewing leaders in the community.
- Hamilton, John L. "The Factor of Motivation in Learning as Applied to the Making of a Teaching Film," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXV:423-431, October, 1944. A study of existing motion pictures to determine how well they succeed in creating pupil interest.
- Hunt, Maurice P. "Visual and Other Aids," *Social Studies*, XXXV:270-272, October, 1944. A discussion of the value of DeVry Filmsets in teaching.
- March, Leland S. "Homespun Tools of Learning," *School Executive*, LXIII:18, July, 1944, LXIII:28, August, 1944. Two articles which are full of ideas on vitalizing teaching with homemade materials.

Book Reviews

CITIZENS FOR A NEW WORLD: FOURTEENTH YEARBOOK. Edited by Erling M. Hunt. Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, 1944. Pp. viii, 186. \$2.00.

We have come to expect vigorous and able educational leadership from the National Council for the Social Studies. In its current Yearbook, this National Education Association department has again met our expectations. Teachers need and want material that will help them tackle intelligently the great job of education for world understanding. This series of essays provides an abundance of such help.

Clyde Eagleton tells why peace plans are a genuine contribution to victory. Linden Mander disposes effectively of the doctrine that patriotism is weakened by international co-operation. Carol Riegelman shows why and how international economic co-operation can abort the birth of a second post-war depression and a third world war. C.E. A. Winslow describes the health program of the League all too briefly and outlines the extension of that program for the future. D. F. Fleming, in a model of concise analytical writing, simplifies the welter of current plans for international organization. Walter Kotschnig argues convincingly for realistic teaching of international relations, United Nations co-operation in educational reconstruction, and the establishment of an international office of education. Esther Brunauer traces the salient elements of American foreign policy and calls us all to action, free from meanness and timidity. Hilda Watters outlines practical and specific study units for social studies classes.

This book should excite the enthusiasm of all social studies teachers. It should be read also by school administrators, curriculum builders, and the writers and publishers of textbooks. Members of the general public will welcome it as a résumé of international problems in a form that is brief, positively directed toward the prevention of another world war, yet remarkably free of bias, recrimination, or special pleading.

This volume is essentially a call to mobilize American education for peace, as it has already been mobilized for victory. Let it be written in history books of the future that this one section

of the educational profession guided itself to wage peace through education.

The book needs an index. Some of the chapters would be helped by maps or charts. The bibliographic material omits the important recent books on international organization by Lippman, Welles, and Shotwell. But these are minor shortcomings. The book, as it stands, does an important job and does it so well that no responsible teacher of the social studies can afford to ignore it.

WILLIAM G. CARR

Educational Policies Commission

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GEORGE BANCROFT, BRAHMIN REBEL. By Russel B. Nye. Pp. x, 340, xii (index). New York: Knopf, 1944. \$3.50.

This biography of America's first major historian will warm the cockles of any historian's heart. Bancroft entered Harvard in 1813 and after graduation remained to prepare for the ministry. A scholarship, however, sent him to Göttingen, then the most renowned German university. He met Goethe, Lafayette, Irving, and Byron on his walking trips in Europe. Back home after receiving his degree, Bostonians looked with suspicion upon the product of German learning and manners. After a Harvard tutorship in Greek, at which he was too thorough to hold the esteem of his pupils, he and a partner, Cogswell, founded the Round Hill School. But Bancroft was too much the scholar to remain the teacher, and in that fact lies his fame as an historian. For the rest of his life, more than half the nineteenth century, he was known as the dean of American historical writing and for much of that time was an important national political figure.

His convictions politically led him to choose the party of Jefferson and Jackson, from which the Whigs attempted to wean him. As an active anti-Whig party worker he was able to find political favors for many, including Nathaniel Hawthorne. By 1841 royalties from his *History of the United States* (eventually to appear in ten volumes and twenty-five editions) enabled him to invest in the finest source material, to which was

added a mass of documents and transcripts when President Polk assigned him to London as United States Minister. Everywhere he had access to the archives as well as the private papers of many prominent Europeans whom he easily made his acquaintances. Hundreds of packages of documents kept piling up in his literary stock, over which he worked ceaselessly to forge the finest pieces of historical writing in the manner of his age and in his style of historical interpretation, which before his death was, however, superseded by a new philosophy of history.

Under Polk he had, prior to his mission abroad, become Secretary of the Navy and established the Naval Academy at Annapolis as his most famous educational innovation. In less than nine months he almost completely changed the course of the American navy. In England he had documents copied for him from French archives, and on his return home took up residence in New York to continue the writing of his history.

During post-Civil-War years, and the Franco-Prussian War, he served as Minister at Berlin where he became an intimate of Bismarck's, officially influencing American attitude toward the latter's plan of a unified German empire. Bancroft became the most respected of all diplomats in that empire. Moltke, Mommsen, Richard Wagner, and others were his frequent dinner guests. What an experience for an historian!

Bancroft spends his "twilight years" in Washington, where he completed the final volume of his history and specialized in growing roses, developing the famous "American Beauty." The "Epilogue" acknowledges that "The course of historical writing has veered from his themes, his methods, and his ideals," but he was essentially a philosopher who thought he saw in the history of the past, the pattern of the future.

MELVILLE J. BOYER

Allentown High School
Allentown, Pennsylvania

THE AMERICAS AND TOMORROW. By Virginia Prewett. New York: Dutton, 1944. Pp. 292. \$3.00.

"Through all their early and apparently fruitless conferences, the American states, with their Union and the Bureau and the agreements to keep on trying to agree on big things while they were learning to work together on small things, were inventing a machinery for international cooperation." With this as her thesis, Miss Prewett details how the machinery was invented, why,

and how it can and does work. Further, she discusses at length the prospect that the "inter-American way" may become the way to world peace. Some will contend that she is overly optimistic about the system of inter-American cooperation, but it must be admitted that she has made her case much more concrete than have most writers in the same vein. Even those who are predisposed to scoff at any suggestion for organizing world peace will find it difficult to controvert her case.

The story of our attempt to imitate in Latin America the imperialistic economic infiltration practiced by Europeans, to make Latin America our sphere of influence, and the souring of the Monroe Doctrine for Latin Americans is told against the background of two counter movements. The first of these is "a New World movement to work out a system of international dealings to replace power politics," with origins as far back as 1820 and becoming an organized experiment with the formation of the Pan American Union. The other counter to "Yanqui imperialism" exploded into life with the Mexican Revolution and its resistance to foreign politico-economic manipulation, forerunner of a wave of such resistance throughout Latin America. It is made quite clear that had we continued our earlier policy and practices, inter-Americanism would today be confined to the area south of the Rio Grande; it would be Latin-Americanism.

Over half of the volume is devoted to the drawing together of the American republics since 1933, thanks to the about-face represented by the Good Neighbor Policy of the United States. Of that policy, Miss Prewett says that it was "not a gracious condescension," but was a "save-the-pieces policy" which rescued very real political and economic interests which had been endangered through the old disproved methods of imperialism.

The vigor and saltiness of the language in the first chapters makes them tasty as well as convincing. Unhappily, the flavor evaporates and in the later chapters there develops a tendency toward redundancy and verbosity. Many readers, too, will object to the lack of chapter titles, omission of a table of contents, and to the poor index.

The Americas and Tomorrow is aimed at the man in the street. But it is certainly usable for college reading material and under certain conditions is adaptable for high school use. Although it is partly historical in nature, it can hardly be called a history of our relations with Latin America; it is too contemporary for that.

While it is packed with information, never does it become a mere catalog of facts. Lack of footnotes and bibliography may condemn the work in the eyes of some scholars, but will make it more attractive for the general or school reader.

It should be noted that Miss Prewett did not write this book as the result of an airplane trip over Latin America. She is a student of the region.

WAYNE ALVORD

Community High School
Pekin, Illinois

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LATIN AMERICA, ITS HISTORY AND CULTURE. By J. Fred Rippey and Lynn I. Perrigo. Boston: Ginn, 1944. Pp. xii, 425. \$1.76.

Rippey and Perrigo's book will appeal to the youth of the Americas because it is written in a pleasing and popular style. It will also be of interest to adults who have little or no knowledge of Latin-American countries. This history book is written in such a manner that the reader finishes the book wishing that there were more.

The authors have skillfully interwoven the geography and history of Latin America. Many geographical facts are told as the reader is taken on an imaginary trip throughout these lands. *Latin America, Its History and Culture* is divided into nine units. The second is largely devoted to geography. The nations are grouped geographically: islands, sky countries, countries south of the border, southern lands, and tropical countries. In this unit the reader is made familiar with reasons why some of the Latin-American countries have not traded with us as much as it would seem logical. The pre-Columbian days are dealt with in the third unit. Pictures throughout this unit and also the others show the reader the type of civilizations that were or are found here. In unit four the story of the Conquistadores and the history which follows up to the independence movements is told. This unit lends itself well toward interweaving United States and Latin-American history. Unit five gives a clear and interesting picture of the independence movements. The maps of this unit help to clarify the various portions of the wars for freedom. The story of the various Latin-American dictators is told in unit six. Conditions are given which show why some of these countries have chosen the dictatorial form of government. Besides the political life some of the cultural aspects of each country are given. In unit seven the authors give an unbiased opinion of the "Yankee Peril." The

summary of this unit is very good as it presents clearly our errors and our good points in our Latin-American relations. The recent changes in Latin America are discussed in unit eight. It speaks of the social revolution in Mexico and of other countries. Working and living conditions are in most cases below our standard, but some employers are beginning to give their employees better wages. The present relations of the United States and our neighbors to the south is told in unit nine. The culture of these countries varies; therefore the attitude toward life and its problems is also different. The Latin American does not hold money as a little tin god; consequently he cannot understand some of our actions. Every nation great and small has something to offer if only the rest of the world is alert enough to appreciate it.

After each of these units there are aids which will help to make the study of each unit more interesting. In the appendix there is a guide to pronunciation of Latin-American terms and names, bibliographies for student and teacher, folklore, and audio-visual aids. Teachers will especially welcome the guide to pronunciation, folklore, and audio-visual aids as many have little or no opportunity to obtain this information elsewhere.

This book has been recommended to me as suitable for high school people by A. Curtis Wilgus of the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs and also by Marjorie Johnston of the United States Department of Education. I am convinced that this book will be popular with the youth of the Americas.

The authors have already called attention to a few minor errors, resulting from desire to make the book available for this school year, which will be corrected in a new printing.

LEONA WEIER

Beaver Dam High School
Beaver Dam, Wisconsin

•
MUST MEN HATE? By Sigmund Livingston. New York: Harper, 1944. Pp. xv, 344. \$2.50.

The Jews must certainly be a remarkable people.

In *Must Men Hate?* Lloyd George is quoted on the contradictory charges which anti-Semites make against the Jews:

If they are rich, they are birds of prey; if they are poor, they are vermin; if they are in favor of war, that is because they want to exploit the bloody feuds of Gentiles to their own profit. If they are anxious for peace, they are

either instinctive cowards or traitors. If they give generously—and there are no more liberal givers than the Jews—they are doing it for some selfish purpose of their own. If they don't give, then what would you expect of a Jew? If labor is opposed by great capital, the greed of the Jew is held responsible. If labor revolts against capital—as it did in Russia—the Jew is blamed for that also.

To these nonsensical contradictions, the author, Mr. Sigmund Livingston, adds other delusions he has encountered in his work as Chairman of the Anti-Defamation League:

The Jew is charged with being the international banker and also with being a Communist. He is charged with being a superstitious monotheist and also with being an atheist. He is charged with being clannish, and also with trying to enter social groups and societies from which he is excluded. He is charged with being a materialist and at the same time with having an unfair percentage of teachers in the universities . . . [with being] unduly active in social service, and in all other altruistic professions and vocations.

Since anti-Semitism is based on delusions, as was witchcraft, it is fruitless to search for "causes" in the behavior of the Jews; instead of searching for fictional causes, says Mr. Livingston, we must concentrate on helping the possessor of irrational ideas to eliminate his delusions. We must struggle for reason; we must present truth. But in presenting reason and truth, the author meets a paradox that dogs most books which fight anti-Semitism in this way. He risks sounding defensive, however persistently he stresses the plain fact of the matter—namely that Jews are like other people and their actions are no more or less in need of defense.

Must Men Hate? is full of facts for people who want to meet libels with logic. From it you may learn of the pogrom conducted by the representatives of sixty-five million Germans against the half million Jews in their midst, of the notable contributions by Jews to American civilization from the time of Columbus' "map Jew" to the time of Sgt. Meyer Levin, of the variety of canards and character assassinations directed against Jews. Should you wish a ludicrous list of those termed Jews by American anti-Semites, Mr. Livingston obliges; the roster of "Jews," according to the anti-Semites, include Pope Pius XI, President Roosevelt, Frances Perkins, Winston Churchill, William Randolph Hearst, J. P. Morgan, Sinclair Lewis, and even Mussolini! Should you have any friends who believe in the validity of the Protocols of Zion (you shouldn't!), Mr. Livingston again obliges. His book disposes of much scum washed in by the wave of the future.

The diffusiveness of the book makes it resemble

a handbook rather than a unified argument. Free use of the index by fact-finders is recommended. Mr. Livingston hopes that his book will be widely used, for his experience has led him to conclude that "one hundred leaders of progressive thought in America properly organized and backed by the churches and newspapers could destroy this monster [anti-Semitism] and render a lasting service to our country and to humanity at large."

WILLIAM VAN TIL

Ohio State University
and

Bureau for Intercultural Education

PUBLIC SPENDING AND POSTWAR ECONOMIC POLICY.

By Sherwood M. Fine. New York: Columbia University Press, 1944. Pp. x, 177. \$2.50.

"This is a book not alone for the professional economist and government specialist, but for the business man, the labor leader, and the interested layman as well." So reads the blurb on the dust cover. It does not say that the first pages rapidly ascend into the stratosphere of economic jargon whence the highest peaks of reality are but dimly seen, and where the reader quickly loses consciousness unless equipped with an oxygen mask charged with the latest vocabulary of the Keynes-Hansen schools of economic thought. In Chapter V, "The Limits to the Public Debt," the reader discovers that he is slowly descending from this exhausting atmosphere to more comprehensible and useful language. This reviewer freely admits that while in the stratosphere he several times lost consciousness.

Within the fences erected by most economists this book thoroughly explores the field delimited by the title. Mr. Fine, who is an economist for the Foreign Economic Administration, presents data and conclusions of great value to all who must help to unravel the complicated political-economic tangles which confront our war-wracked world. We who teach the social studies might well read and discuss this volume from Chapter V to the end, and in our own study groups relate its contents to other writings which I shall mention at the end.

In Chapters VI and VII Mr. Fine gives a valuable analysis of public spending, 1933-1940, and draws conclusions which we may derive from this experience. This is no place to repeat the argument (the Presidential campaign will be over when this goes to print anyway), so let us cite a few conclusions:

"Resort to the public purse, however necessary and valuable an expedient, cannot be heralded as a cure for the ills giving rise to depressions" (p. 128).

"One of the serious ideological consequences of a public spending program . . . is the tendency of such programs to distract attention from detailed investigation into specific institutional maladjustments" (p. 130).

"With the government committed to the quest of recovery through expansionist outlays, attention is inevitably focused upon domestic rather than international problems. . . . The ultimate costs of this policy must be appraised not alone in terms of the disorganized and depressed international trade of the thirties but also in relation to the culmination of this period in World War II" (p. 131).

"In the postwar period this country will be in a position comparable to that occupied by England in the nineteenth century, when that nation was able to outproduce and outsell all competitors. Any effort on our part to assert our superior competitive situation will precipitate a wave of protectionism and discriminatory agreements and launch the world on the road to poverty and political conflict" (p. 157).

The most serious faults of this book arise from the restricted field of vision which economists, by tradition, allow themselves. The author bravely opens with a question which looks beyond these traditional fences. He quotes the common man as asking: "Must freedom be purchased by exposure to poverty and insecurity?" (p. 1). Within the confines of our conventional economic institutions Mr. Fine produces a hopeful answer. But behind all questions of price, cost, capital formation, effective consumer demand, etc., are the large questions: What social goals do we wish to achieve? And what are the political means which need to be used to achieve them? In *Social Goals and Economic Institutions*, Frank D. Graham of Princeton University has attempted to construct an answer. The result is eminently worth study, especially by those who teach courses in economics, government, and politics.

A more readable discussion of the problem of the public debt and Hansen's theory concerning it will be found in *The New Philosophy of Public Debt*, by Harold G. Moulton. For more exciting reading on our economic position today and tomorrow turn to Stuart Chase's three publications issued under the auspices of the Twentieth Century Fund: *The Road We Are Traveling, 1914-1942; Goals for America; A Budget of Our*

Needs and Resources; and Where's the Money Coming From? Problems of Postwar Finance. And having come this far, if you remain sound in mind and body, you will make a good candidate for Congress!

E. LEWIS B. CURTIS

State Teachers College
Oneonta, New York

MAKING THE GOODS WE NEED. By Paul R. Hanna, I James Quillen, and Paul B. Sears. Chicago: Scott, Foresman, 1943. Pp. 295. \$1.60.

MARKETING THE THINGS WE USE. By Paul R. Hanna and Edward A. Krug. Chicago: Scott, Foresman, 1943. Pp. 315. \$1.60.

These two excellent volumes, the second and third of a series of which *This Useful World* was the first, although intended primarily for grades 5-7, could well be used with average-to-slow ninth grades. *Making the Things We Need*, discusses the materials, the tools, the processes, the labor, and the management that go into the production of goods with which the child is familiar. *Marketing the Things We Use* takes the goods from the producer to the wholesaler, retailer, and consumer, and discusses such business practices as installment buying and advertising. Both volumes deal with subject matter that provides much opportunity for the integration of field trips and observation with classroom study.

Favorable aspects include large type, double columns, and varied types of illustrations which give a nice attention to sequence, contrast, and evolutionary development. The closing section of each chapter, written as an integral part of the chapter itself, is an excellent teachers' help in its suggestions of supplementary activities, projects, and reading references. Of especial value for the school system which does not yet have a film library of its own is the appendix on "Visual Aids" which not only recommends specific film titles for use with most of the chapters but also gives a source from which each film may be secured.

There is also at the end of each volume a basically sound, though far from perfect, "Chapter for Teachers" which states not only the seven or eight major "Purposes" and the five or six "Pupil Behaviors" which the book as a whole should aid the child in achieving, but which also lists for each chapter some six to thirteen elementary "Generalizations" to be distilled from its study. These generalizations particularly, poor as some of them are, signify a distinct step forward to

ADAPTING INSTRUCTION IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES TO INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

EDWARD KRUG and G. LESTER ANDERSON, *Editors*

The contributors to this Yearbook present ways in which social studies teachers can adapt instruction to individual differences by the use of practical classroom techniques, and through a wide variety of educational materials. A stimulating volume full of ideas and suggestions for classroom teachers and administrators. Underlying the entire volume is a sound and constructive philosophy towards facing the facts of individual differences.

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textbook writing because they represent the residue of understandings which should remain long after the child has forgotten the multitudinous facts by means of which he originally arrived at their comprehension.

There are some unfavorable aspects. Teachers will miss vocabulary lists and book, pamphlet, and film references that are sufficiently annotated to make for their most effective classroom use. Also, current authors should have a greater awareness of the lasting influences stemming from World War II upon both the making and the marketing of goods than have these writers. A further weakness of the *Making* book is that practically its entire text, however carefully written, is straight, unrelieved exposition. The *Marketing* book attains higher pupil interest by quoting enlivening and illustrative conversation.

CARLOS DE ZAFRA, JR.

DOROTHEA M. DE ZAFRA

John Marshall High School
Rochester, New York

AMERICA AT WORK SERIES. By Marshall Dunn and Lloyd N. Morrisett. Yonkers: World Book, 1943.

Machines for America. Pp. xi, 164. 80 cents.

Power for America. Pp. xi, 164. 80 cents.

Wings for America. Pp. xi, 244. \$1.00.

In spite of the authors' claim that in these volumes "emphasis is upon . . . the problems as well as the benefits that stem from an industrial civilization," these volumes are primarily science books in which references to large social implications are entirely incidental if not utterly lacking. There is no consideration whatsoever of the human factor. Such basic problems as technological unemployment, the distribution of purchasing power, the psychological effects of specialized vocations upon the worker, and the sociological maladjustments to which industrial civilizations give rise, are all ignored. If these texts were seriously intended for the social studies, the authors have failed to realize that social studies teachers are not concerned with the details of industrial techniques or mechanical processes *per se*, but are, rather, concerned with those implications of a social, economic, and political

nature which these scientific developments have for ourselves and for mankind. So far as the social studies are concerned, these volumes might well serve as supplementary references for the more technically minded students of the eighth, ninth, and tenth grades (the *Wings* book is technical enough for adults).

Best of the series is *Machines for America*. Written in large part in a comparatively lively, conversational style, its vicarious visit through a steel mill, for example, as reported through the eyes of Elsie, Lester, and Mr. Beebe, is a far more exciting and memorable experience than would be the reading of a mere recitation of the industrial processes performed there. The last two volumes, however, exhibit the great weakness of most textbook writing in that they are written from the position of the subject specialist approaching the child, rather than from the position of the child approaching the subject.

Concerning pupil development, although the authors themselves state that "The primary aim [of these books] . . . is to build concepts, develop appreciations, establish attitudes, and bring about an understanding of the American way of life as a whole," they have failed also to accomplish these praiseworthy objectives, for all they succeed in giving is an appreciation of modern industrial techniques. Even in pursuit of this goal, the three books could be improved by the annotation of their chapter-end reading references and by the inclusion of references to available auditory and visual aids.

With the above limitations in mind, it should be said that the general format, the quality of the illustrations, the large type, the vocabulary lists, and the suggestions for projects and activities are all commendable.

CARLOS DE ZAFRA, JR.
DOROTHEA M. DE ZAFRA

John Marshall High School
Rochester, New York

YOUR LIFE IN A DEMOCRACY. By Howard E. Brown. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1944. Pp. xi, 435. \$1.80.

OUR CAREERS AS CITIZENS. By W. M. Richards and Bliss Isely. Chicago: Beckley-Cardy, 1943. Pp. ix, 396; appendix xii-lxviii. \$1.44.

The ninth-grade community civics course has long been the stepchild of the social studies program, in spite of the various attempts to develop a functional approach to government and its

problems. In many schools the course has been broadened to include all the problems of youth and adults. In others, it has yielded to courses dealing with personal and social problems, often taught by members of the school's guidance staff. *Your Life in a Democracy*, by Howard E. Brown, attempts to serve those schools which are attempting to do both in the same course. It is described as a "community civics-orientation-guidance textbook."

The volume gives a little over half of its space to guidance problems, and the personnel approach is used in the rest of the material. It is divided into seven parts: Part One, Your Opportunity (25 pages), deals with the school as a workshop for student activity; Part Two, Your School Life (74 pages), is a guide to efficient study; Part Three, Your Personality and Friends (42 pages), tells how to make and keep friends; Part Four, Your Job as Citizen (134 pages), covers the usual topics of community civics; Part Five, Your Health (62 pages), deals with food, energy, and accidents; Part Six, Your Mind and Emotions (66 pages), is an approach to mental hygiene; and Part Seven, Your Future (17 pages), emphasizes individual and social goals.

Mr. Brown has written an interesting text, well illustrated with pictures of youth in a number of worth-while activities. It does a real service in continually emphasizing the part young people can take in the study of contemporary problems. The section on "Your School Life" is excellent aid for any student in the development of study habits. Much of the book, however, is superficial: the federal government is dealt with in 23 pages, devoted largely to structure; the student gets vocational guidance in 15 pages, without reference to a single specific source of occupational information. This attempt to get so many topics in one book results in broad generalizations and a tendency to "preach." The section on "Your Mind and Emotions" is of little value; mental hygiene is oversimplified for the normal child, and the "rules" would be worthless (or harmful) to a maladjusted one. The educational aids are limited to questions on the text.

Our Careers as Citizens, by W. M. Richards and Bliss Isely is an attempt "to explain in a simple, informal way the fundamental principles, structure, and operation of our government—local, state, and national." Included are parts dealing with community activities (Living and Working Together, 110 pages), history of American government (Background of our American

Republic, 50 pages), lawmaking (How Laws Are Made, 76 pages), executive functions (Making the Will of the People Effective, 50 pages), courts (Our Country's Umpires, 32 pages), amendments (Changing the Constitution, 18 pages), and general problems (Responsibilities of Citizenship, 57 pages).

This junior high school civics book is simply and interestingly written and could be used in any of the junior high school grades. The educational aids consist of "problems to study and discuss" and "special problems"; both are directed toward community study, the latter requiring a bit more research. The appendix includes the Mayflower Compact, the Constitution, the Declaration of Independence, and other material. It serves the needs of the school which teaches civics in grade eight, and can be used in a community civics course in the ninth grade if supplemented by other materials. It is a weakness of the book that such aids are not included.

JULIAN C. ALDRICH

Northwest Missouri State Teachers College
Maryville, Missouri

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- Yost, Edna and Gilbreth, Lillian M. *Normal Lives for the Disabled*. New York: Macmillan, 1944. Pp. x, 298. \$2.50.

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VOLUME VIII

NUMBER 8

SOCIAL EDUCATION

OFFICIAL JOURNAL, NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

DECEMBER, 1944

PUBLISHED BY THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES
IN COLLABORATION WITH THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION

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Editorial office: 204 Fayerweather Hall, Columbia University, New York City 27. Correspondence in regard to manuscripts, reviews, and advertising should be addressed to the Editor.

Subscription without membership is \$4.00 a year; single copies 30 cents. Address SOCIAL EDUCATION, 1201 Sixteenth St. N.W., Washington 6.

Published monthly except June, July, August, and September at 1201 Sixteenth Street N.W., Washington 6, D.C., by the National Council for the Social Studies. Entered as second-class matter December 29, 1936, at the post office at Washington, D.C., and Menasha, Wisconsin, under the act of March 3, 1879.

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